

THE LITERARY GAZETTE

AND

Journal of the Belles Lettres, Science, and Art.

No. 1932.

LONDON, SATURDAY, JANUARY 28, 1854.

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UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.— GEOLOGY AND MINERALOGY.

Professor MORRIS, F.G.S., will commence his course by an Introductory Lecture, on Thursday, Jan. 19, at 3 o'clock. Subject—The Object and Application of Geological Science. This lecture is free to the public. The course will consist of from 25 to 30 Lectures, to be delivered on Tuesdays and Thursdays, from a quarter past 4 to a quarter past 5. Fee, 2s; College fee, 5s. Two Mercurian Prizes—£15 and £10 respectively—offered by the Baron D. Goldsmid, will be at the disposal of the Professor for presentation to students of this class at the end of the present session, if he consider the proficiency of the students deserving of such rewards. If not, the prizes will be retained for award in a future year.

RICHARD POTTER, A.M.,
Dean of the Faculty of Arts and Laws.
CHAR. C. ATKINSON,
Secretary to the Council.

Jan. 2, 1854.

GEOLOGY AND MINERALOGY. The LECTURES OF PROFESSOR MORRIS have just commenced. The course will consist of from 25 to 30 Lectures, to be delivered on Tuesdays and Thursdays, from a quarter past 4 to a quarter past 5. Fee, 2s; College fee, 5s. Two Mercurian Prizes—£15 and £10 respectively—offered by the Baron D. Goldsmid, will be at the disposal of the Professor, for presentation to students of this class at the end of the present session, if he consider the proficiency of the students deserving of such rewards. If not, the prizes will be retained for award in a future year.

RICHARD POTTER, A.M.,
Dean of the Faculty of Arts & Laws.
CHARLES C. ATKINSON,
Secretary to the Council.

University College, London, January 25, 1854.

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LECTURE. Thursday evening, February 2nd, CARL THEODORE KOENIGER, his LIFE, GENIUS, WORKS, and CONTENTS, by SHIRLEY HIBBERT, Esq., to commence at eight o'clock. Members free, with the usual privilege for their Friends. Non-members, 1s.
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EGYPTIAN HALL.—CONSTANTINOPLE is NOW OPEN every day at half past two o'clock, and every Evening at eight. The Lecture is delivered by Mr. CHARLES KENNEY, and has been written by Mr. ALBERT SMITH and Mr. SHIRLEY BROOKS. Admission, 1s; reserved seats, 2s.

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Court Circular, Nov. 21, 1853.—Windsor.—Messrs. Leggatt had the honour of submitting to Her Majesty and his Royal Highness Prince Albert, Barker's painting of Nelson receiving the Swords of the Officers on the quarter-deck of the San Josef after the battle of St. Vincent.

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LONDON, SATURDAY, JANUARY 28, 1854.

REVIEWS.

Murray's British Classics. The Works of Oliver Goldsmith. Edited by Peter Cunningham. Vol. I. Murray.
The Annotated Edition of the English Poets. Edited by Robert Bell. Vol. I. *Poetical Works of John Dryden*, Vol. I. Parker and Son.

THERE can be no better sign of the spread of a healthy taste in literature than the simultaneous appearance of the various new editions of our English Classics which our columns have recently had occasion to announce. The appetite for ephemeral productions, produced in a cheap form, and thrown aside as soon as read, which alarmed many observers with fears for a perversion of the national taste, appears to have given place to a demand for something more stable and of a higher class. Publishers who have not hitherto entered the arena of cheap literature, have come forward to meet this demand, and the first fruits of their labours are before us in the volumes named at the head of this article. Messrs. Parker propose to confine their enterprise to an edition of the best English poets, which is to present a complete body of English poetry, accompanied by biographical, critical, and historical notes, sufficiently full for all the purposes of the student of our national literature. The whole is to be under the superintendence of Mr. Robert Bell, an editor thoroughly qualified for a task which demands a combination of unusual powers and attainments. By this arrangement greater unity and completeness are likely to be found in the series than if it were entrusted to a variety of editors of different critical tastes. The work of selection and omission, in the case of minor poets, will, however, demand peculiar circumspection; and we feel assured that Mr. Bell will spare no pains in seeking suggestions in this respect from the most capable advisers.

Mr. Murray's enterprise embraces a wider circle, including apparently the choicest English classics in every department of general literature. Editions of Gibbon, Pope, Addison, Dryden, and Swift, are already announced, under the care of editors whose names are ample vouchers for the excellence of what may be expected in the shape of revision and annotation. The works of Goldsmith, of all writers except Shakspeare perhaps the nearest to English hearts, have been very fitly selected as the first of the series.

The undertakings of Messrs. Murray and Parker can scarcely be said to be rivals. The Messrs. Parker bid for a larger public than Mr. Murray, by producing their works in a cheaper form. At the same time, however, we are bound to say that excellence of quality has been in no degree sacrificed to the attainment of cheapness. The volume before us, so far as appearance is concerned, is worthy of a place in the best library, as it will be ornamental to the humblest. For a mere reprint it would be a marvel of cheapness at half-a-crown; but the editor has bestowed the same pains upon it in all respects as though it had been produced in the most elaborate and expensive form. It is only by the sale of many thousands that the publishers can escape a heavy loss. The price of Mr. Murray's volumes, seven shillings and sixpence, will limit them

to a much narrower circle. But in their way they are quite as cheap as Messrs. Parker's, for they are, in point of elegance, brilliancy of type, &c., all that the most luxurious bibliomaniac can wish, and just such books as the lover of good literature, with the requisite means, would wish to put upon his shelves. Of both series it may be said with equal truth that no books of the same high character have issued from any English press at so moderate a price.

If we are to accept Mr. Bell's Dryden as a fair sample of the spirit and execution of the remainder of the series, there can be no question that his annotated edition of the poets will be a great boon. An admirable life of the poet, enriched by new materials, where already the subject appeared to have been exhausted, is prefixed to the volume; critical commentaries, carefully considered and tersely expressed, are interspersed throughout the volume, and illustrative notes are judiciously added to the poems, wherever historical or biographical allusions or recondite images demand them. In short, the right information is given at the right places; and Mr. Bell has skillfully availed himself of the labours of his predecessors, while he drops their discursiveness and avoids their superfluities. The text seems to have been carefully revised, and no pains spared to make this a standard edition of the poet.

The most important addition to the poet's history which Mr. Bell's biography discloses, is the discovery of a document fixing an earlier date for the increase of Dryden's pension, which has, especially by recent writers, been connected with the poet's change of religion, and thereby materially shaking the suspicion under which he has lain, of being led by interested motives to adopt this step. This document is an Exchequer warrant, dated 6th May, 1684, authorising the payment to Dryden of an old arrear of the salary in question, from which it appears that it was granted by Charles the Second upwards of two years, at least, before Dryden embraced the Roman-catholic religion. James the Second reduced the laureate's income to the original 200*l.* a-year, besides cutting off the annual butt of sherry. A year afterwards, and while Dryden was still a Protestant, the additional 100*l.* were restored to him by letters patent. Mr. Bell sums up the results of his discovery thus:

"I have dwelt upon these circumstances because they contribute materially to remove the suspicion hitherto attached to this pension, and which would now seem to be unwarranted by the facts. Nearly all Dryden's biographers have been influenced, more or less, by that suspicion. Even Dr. Johnson, who is unwilling to pronounce judgment on a question which no human evidence can satisfactorily decide, and who is desirous to put the best construction on the motives by which Dryden was actuated in changing his religion, cannot help betraying the doubt which the supposed connexion between the conversion and the pension had raised in his mind. His words are memorable:

"That conversion will always be suspected that apparently concurs with interest. He that never finds his error till it hinders his progress towards wealth or honour, will not be thought to love truth for himself."

"Mr. Macaulay, whose character of Dryden, distinguished by a spirit of invective as indiscriminate as it is severe, must inspire all dispassionate readers with deep regret, brings forward the charge with circumstantial minuteness.

"Finding that if he continued to call himself a Protestant, his services would be overlooked, he declared himself a Papist. The King's parsimony instantly relaxed. Dryden was gratified with a

pension of one hundred pounds a year, and was employed to defend his new religion both in prose and verse."

"I have not been able to discover on what authority this statement is made: nor have I found the accusation exhibited in this shape anywhere else. According to the evidence of dates, the pension, instead of following the conversion, was antecedent to it. I do not know whether this will be considered to alter the case much. If we are still to believe that Dryden changed his religion for a pension, the morality of the transaction will not be mended by proving that he secured his pension before he avowed his change; but as it is desirable to be accurate in such matters, in order that others may be able to form an opinion as well as ourselves, the safer course is to state facts in the order of their occurrence. The pension was resumed in 1685-6, and the anonymous 'Defence of the Duchess of York's Paper,' in which Dryden for the first time espoused the doctrines of the Church of Rome, appeared late in 1686. The 'Hind and Panther' was not published till the middle of 1687. The conversion, no doubt, followed close upon the pension—so close, that it was difficult to resist the reasoning which insisted upon tracing a connexion between them.

"The fact, however, disclosed by the Exchequer warrant I have quoted, which shows that the pension in reality dated as far back as May, 1684, diminishes very sensibly the force of the imputation, if it do not prove it to be altogether groundless. If the pension had been granted to Dryden to purchase his services in defence of his new religion, he would scarcely have passed over two years without doing something towards acquitting himself of the obligation it imposed upon him: nor would he have waited for the accession of James to avow an apostasy to the benefits of which Charles was so much better entitled.

"To those who regard all changes of opinion with abhorrence, it would be idle to offer any argument in defence of that right of judgment which consistent Protestantism is bound to respect, even when it happens to be adversely exercised; but they who are willing to extend to others the toleration they would think it very hard to be excluded from themselves, will discover some grace, and some claim to forbearance, in the sincerity of such changes. That Dryden was thoroughly sincere cannot be reasonably doubted. Mr. Macaulay calls him 'an illustrious renegade.' The term is opprobrious, and must have been wrung from a conviction that Dryden did not believe in the religion he embraced; for Mr. Macaulay cannot be suspected of denying to Dryden the same liberty of opinion he has himself used so freely in judging of him. Upon this point, indeed, he is sufficiently explicit. He tells us plainly that Dryden had no religion at all:—

"He knew little and cared little about religion. If any sentiment was deeply fixed in him, that sentiment was an aversion to priests of all persuasions, Levites, augurs, muftis, Roman-catholic divines, Presbyterian divines, divines of the Church of England."

"This sentence will not come to much upon dissection. A man who believes in any one form of religion will be likely to regard with indifference the priests of all other forms; and it would be quite possible to be an exemplary Christian and to hold in aversion the whole group of priests collected into this passage, which certainly does not embrace every denomination of Christianity. It is no great discredit to Dryden that he rejected the ministration of muftis, although we cannot say as much, with equal confidence, concerning the augurs. But that he knew little and cared little about religion, is an assertion to which his writings and his conduct furnish a conclusive answer."

Of course there will always be people to argue that the resumption of a grant which had fallen, and a new grant, are, for the purposes of the imputation on Dryden's motives, much the same thing. But in the absence of all proof, surely the most just as well as the most generous conclusion is, that the imputa

tion is groundless. Why are great men to be denied the charitable constructions which are allowed to the rest of mankind? Dryden's wife, Malone thinks, had long been a Papist, and he bred his children in the same faith. His eldest son, Charles, according to Mitford, contributed to the change in his father's creed, and Dryden maintained his new faith through the reign of William, when worldly interest would have prompted a different course. "I presume," adds Mitford, "that no one would have questioned his sincerity, had his conversion not taken place at a juncture when it would be peculiarly grateful to the new king. At the same time, the integrity of such a man as Dryden is not to be sullied by suspicions that rest on what, after all, might prove a fortuitous coincidence." Mr. Bell's discovery shows that even this coincidence did not exist, and the suspicion ought, therefore, in common fairness, to be discharged at once and for ever.

Mr. Bell has also been able to correct the date of Dryden's unhappy marriage with Lady Elizabeth Howard, and to prove, contrary to the statements of previous biographers, that it took place with consent of her father the Earl of Berkshire. More interesting to the general reader, however, than such matters of biographical research are some letters of the poet, now first published, one of which, addressed to Walsh, the author of a 'Dialogue on Women,' for which Dryden wrote a preface, is peculiarly interesting for the excellence of its verbal criticism:

"You command me Deare Sir, to make a kind of critique on your Essay: tis an hard province; but if I were able to undertake it, possibly, a greater proofe of friendship is scarcely to be found; where to be truly a friend, a man must seeme to exercise a little malice. As it happens, I am now incumberd with some necessary business, relating to one of my Sonns; which when it is over, I shall have more leysure to obey you, in case there appeare any farther need. There is not the least occasion of reflecting on your disposition of the piece, nor the thoughts. I see nothing to censure in either of them. Besides this the style is easy and natural; as fit for Dialogue, as if you had set Tully before you; and as gallant as Fontenelle in his plurality of Worlds. In the correctness of the English there is not much for me to animadvert. Be pleas'd therefore, to avoid the words, don't, can't, shan't, and the like abbreviations of syllables; which seeme to me to savour of a little rusticity. As for Pedantry you are not to be tax'd with it. I remember I hinted somewhat of concluding your Sentences with prepositions or conjunctions sometimes, which is not elegant, as in your first sentence—(See the consequences of.) I find likewise, that you make not a due distinction betwixt that, and who; A man *that* is not proper; the relative *who* is proper. *That*, ought alwayes to signify a thing; *who*, a person. An acquaintance *that* wou'd have *undertook* the business; true English is, an acquaintance who wou'd have *undertaken* the business. I am confident I need not proceed with these little criticisms, which are rather cavillings. Philareque, or the Critique on Balzac, observes it as a fault in his style, that he has in many places written twenty words together (en suite) which were all Monosyllables; I observe this in some lines of your Noble Epigramm: and am often guilty of it mysefve through hastinesse. Mr. Waller counted this a vertue of the English tongue, that it cou'd bring so many words of the Teutonike together, and yet the smoothness of the Verse not vitiated. Now I am speaking of your Epigramm, I am sure you will not be offended with me for saying, there is some imperfection in the two last lines.

"Blend 'em together, Fate, ease both their paine; And of two wretches make one happy man. The word blend includes the sense of *together*; ease both their paine: paine is singular, both is Plural.

But indeed *paine* may have a collective and plural signification. Then the Rhyme is not full of pain and Man. An half rhyme is not always a fault; but in the close of any paper of verses, tis to be avoyded. And after all, tell me truly, if those words, ease both their paine, were not superfluous in the sence, and only put, for the sake of the rhyme, and filling up the verse. It came into my head to alter them, and I am affrayd for the worse.

"Kind Fate, or Fortune, blend them, if you can: And, of two wretches, make one happy man. Kind fate looks a little harsh: fate without an epithet, is always taken in the ill sence. *Kind* added, changes that signification. (*Fati valet hora benigni.*) The words (if you can) have almost the same fault I tax'd in your ending of the line: but being better considered, that is, whether fortune or fate can alter a Man's temper, who is already so temperd; and leaving it doubtfull, I thinke does not prejudice the thought, in the last line. Now I begin, to be in for Cakes and Ale; and why should I not put a quere on those other lines? Poor Shift, does all his whole contrivance set, To spend that wealth he wants the Sence to get. All his whole contrivance, is but all his Contrivance, or his whole Contrivance; thus, one of those words, looks a little like tautology. Then an ill natur'd man might ask, how he cou'd spend wealth, not having the sence to get it? But this is trifling, in me. For your sence is very intelligible; which is enough to secure it. And, by your favour, so is Martial's: *Vivibus hic non est, hic non est utilis annis*: and yet in exactness of Criticism, your censure stands good upon him.—I am call'd to dinner, and have only time to add a great truth; that I am from the bottome of my Soul, Deare Sir, Your most humble Servant and true lover JOHN DRYDEN.

"Your apostrophe's to your Mistressse, where you break off the thrid of your discourse, and address yourself to her, are, in my opinion, as fine turnes of gallantry, as I have mett with anywhere.

"For My Honour'd Friend,
"William Walsh Esqr.
"These."

That Mr. Bell has been able to make the additions he has to the facts of a life which had been thoroughly ransacked by such men as Malone, Scott, and Mitford, while it shows the thoroughgoing spirit in which he has set about his onerous duties, is at the same time strong evidence of the general interest which his enterprise has excited. Not only in this instance but in others, important materials, calculated to give peculiar value to what may be truly regarded as a work of national interest, have, we believe, been most frankly placed at his disposal by their possessors.

We wish we could spare room for some portions of the forcible and concise criticism on Dryden's qualities as a writer, with which the biography concludes; but we must be content with a simple recommendation, and a hearty God speed! to Mr. Bell in his arduous but noble task. It will be indeed strange if occasional errors of oversight or commission do not creep into his pages, as indeed some slight ones may be pointed out in the present volume; but however these may delight the cynicism of minute critics, they can detract little from the value of a series elaborated with so much care, enlivened by so much energy, and illustrated at once copiously and with judgment.

Mr. Cunningham's task has been slight in comparison with that of Mr. Bell. The same necessity for illustration and explanation does not exist in the case of Goldsmith as in that of Dryden, and he has wisely minimised the amount of his annotations. No life has been attempted, the recent labours of Prior and Forster having either been regarded as rendering any fresh biography superfluous, or Mr. Cunningham not choos-

ing to run the risk of drawing down upon himself the united ire of these gentlemen by presenting the result of their researches in his own words. Those who remember the very pretty controversy between Prior and Forster, when the latter published his biography in 1848, will appreciate the prudence of not renewing these *plus quam civilia bella*. Even as it is, we observe that Mr. Cunningham has roused the indignation of Mr. Prior, or some of his friends, by adopting the matter of some of that gentleman's notes without acknowledging the source from which he has borrowed his thunder. The principle acted on by Mr. Cunningham is thus explained in his preface:—

"With respect to the notes throughout, I have only to say, that I hold myself responsible for all, although to the authorship of many I can lay no claim whatever. It was once my intention to distinguish those of previous editors by their names, but I abandoned that idea because in many cases I was unable to identify the writers; while I had myself taken some liberties, either of correction or compression, with almost every note; I therefore resolved to adopt the notes of my predecessors, with this general caution and admission, and to let my own appear without the often-recurring ostentation of my name attached to them."

We are by no means clear that in all circumstances this is a fair mode of turning to account the labours of previous annotators. In cases of important restorations of a corrupted text, or of exegetical criticism, or correction of errors of fact which have had long and general currency, the work of the annotator ought, we think, in justice to be recognised by the addition of his name. But nothing of this kind occurs in the volume before us, nor indeed is likely to occur in the case of Goldsmith; and it seems to us, therefore, that Mr. Cunningham is perfectly justified in letting his notes stand fatherless on the page, with the general recognition contained in his preface of his obligations to others. What the public are interested in are the facts of a note, not its paternity. Who cares, for example, to know that the editions were wrong in a date or in a line till Wright, or Prior, or Corney corrected them? Give us the right date and the right line, and say nothing about either, and we are content. Why pester the reader with exploded errors, or be perpetually thrusting before him the names of annotators about whom he feels no concern? We all know the infinite weariness and disgust produced by the different rule, which too long prevailed, of first proclaiming the blunders of former annotators, and then setting to work to demolish them with a park of critical artillery; and remembering then intolerable tediousness of annotators as a body, we do not hesitate to confess our gratitude to the editor who adopts the succinct and noiseless method of Mr. Cunningham. Besides, if the original author of every note is to be given, where is this minuteness to stop? Mr. Prior or Mr. Wright, or whoever edited the edition of 1837, to which Mr. Prior's name is attached, was as great a delinquent as Mr. Cunningham, if the rule of detailed acknowledgment, urged by a contemporary, who takes up the cause of Mr. Prior, is to be taken as the only sound one. They have been beholden to the labours of their predecessors for many of their most valuable notes, yet upon these notes they set no brand to distinguish them from their own. Nay, the notes of Goldsmith himself, for anything that appears, may be mistaken for the notes of his annota-

tors—a particular in which Mr. Cunningham, we observe, differs from all previous editors, Mr. Prior included, inasmuch as he appends Goldsmith's name to the notes which were actually written by him. The outcry raised by our contemporary against Mr. Cunningham is certainly not likely to be joined in by the public, who will always be most thankful to the editor who condenses his information into the briefest space, especially when the information is open to all the world to use as they please. In the case of the notes adopted from the edition of 1837, the information is precisely of this kind, and the editor of that edition might just as truly be charged with plagiarism, because he got his facts from sources which he does not detail, as Mr. Cunningham for adopting the facts with the words in which they had been already told.

We were not previously aware that there existed so great a necessity for a careful revision of Goldsmith's works. Much, it appears, has been omitted, and in many cases imperfect or early copies have been used of writings which had undergone careful revision by Goldsmith subsequently to their original publication.

"This edition of Goldsmith's works," says Mr. Cunningham, "not only contains more pieces than any other, but is also the first in which his works appear together exactly as their author left them."

"Goldsmith was a careful corrector of his own writings; but it is remarkable that in not one of the many editions of his Poems (Mr. Bolton Corney's beautiful and most accurate volume excepted), does 'The Traveller,' or 'The Deserted Village,' appear as finally corrected by their author."

We should say this was not correct in the case of a carefully got-up edition (edited anonymously by the Rev. Hamilton Buchanan), published in Edinburgh in 1837, in four volumes duodecimo, but we have not been able to examine the poems themselves.

"Nor is this defect confined to his Poetical Works alone; it extends in some respects to all his writings."

Mr. Cunningham refers to the octavo edition of 1801, in which Bishop Percy was concerned, and that of 1837, "edited by the late Mr. Wright," as the editions principally held in esteem. The latter, we presume, is that which appeared with the name of Mr. Prior as editor, as we know of none other answering to the description. If this be so, it seems strange that Mr. Cunningham should not openly state the fact, more especially as Mr. Prior's book issued from Mr. Murray's establishment. The public have a right to some explanation on this point, all the more that the edition in question is alleged by Mr. Cunningham to abound in errors both of omission and commission, although it was set up and, to judge by the price it fetches in the market, is generally recognised as the standard Goldsmith. All its faults Mr. Cunningham professes to correct in the present edition, and we are promised the addition of several essays hitherto omitted from the miscellaneous works, and of one wholly new MS. poem from the collection of Mr. Bolton Corney. Mr. Cunningham appears to have bestowed much pains in obtaining the text with the author's last revisions. The only addition of peculiar interest to the notes of the present volume is a MS. memorandum by Garrick, on the origin of Goldsmith's last poem, 'The Retaliation,' which gives in its authentic form the couplet by Garrick which provoked it:—

"Here lies Nolly Goldsmith, for shortness called Noll,
Who wrote like an angel, but talk'd like poor Poll."

We shall probably resume the consideration of this edition when the whole of Mr. Cunningham's labours are before us. In the meantime we see enough to induce us to commend it warmly to our readers.

Scandinavian Adventures. By L. Lloyd. 2 vols. Bentley.

THE love of the chase is surely instinctive. Barbarous as the delight in the destruction of wild animals must to a certain extent be regarded, it is natural to most men, and quite compatible with a generous and humane disposition. Indeed, take them for all in all, sportsmen and anglers are, so far as the heart goes, generally fair specimens of human character,—kind, genial, prompt to serve, and truth-telling, this last good quality being slightly modified by a pardonable tendency towards the magnifying of their personal exploits and dangers. For some years past our Nimrods have varied their pursuits by frequent excursions in the fields of literature, and bagged not a few readers of their books. The shooting season has rung with the reports of their guns, and their idle months with reports of their sanguinary proceedings. In most instances they tell their story pleasantly and well. Their narratives are easy reading, because their style is unambitious and perspicuous—two invaluable merits not much cultivated by book-makers in the present day. A man whose brains are sound and in good working order freshens his intellect when he takes to the field, whether for sport or science, and acquires a taste for plain and wholesome writing just as he learns to appreciate simple cookery. But if he remains too long in the thick and stuffy atmosphere of town clubs and libraries, his intellectual as well as physical palate becomes vitiated, and he writes his thoughts in feverish and cloudy sentences. Our author is one of the former sort.

It is now a good many years since Mr. Lloyd captivated the lovers of a well-told narrative of the chase by his book on the 'Field Sports of the North of Europe.' At the time it appeared, Gordon Cumming had probably just emerged from that stage in the youthful sportsman's career, when his chief occupation was trying to bring down sparrows from the house-tops. Many of the mighty huntsmen who have of late years made the press ring with their doings were then small boys experimenting with pop-guns. Lions, hippopotamuses, antelopes, and caméléons, scarcely entered into their dreams, and enjoyed the African paradise unmolested. It was in the north, and not in the south, that deeds of daring were being done, and that Mr. Lloyd was gathering hyperborean laurels by extinguishing bears, wolves, and lynxes. We doubt not that the stirring story of his doings awakened the mixed ardour of sport and adventure in the youthful bosom of many a future lion-destroyer; and that many a noble elephant, could he trace the predestined course of his eventual doom, would discover the final cause of his demolition far to the north, by the side of Lake Wener.

Two handsome volumes, profusely though unequally illustrated, tell us what Mr. Lloyd has been doing and thinking about in the interval. It is a somewhat irregular tale, composed of a sportsman's pleasant fireside gossip, mingled with solid observations in his favourite department of natural history. There is much that is pleasant, and something that is valuable in the book. We do not intend to

be hypercritical, and prefer culling from its more interesting chapters.

And, first, as best suited to the season for illustrating fairy tales, we would recommend the following wolf-anecdote to the next editor of 'Red Riding Hood, with Notes.' Wolves who could so find it in their hearts to deceive innocent little squeakers in the way that Mr. Lloyd's pet did, would have small compunction when tempted by plump little children:—

"At one time, indeed, I had serious thoughts of training a fine female wolf, in my possession, as a pointer; but I was deterred, owing to the *penchant* she exhibited for the neighbours' pigs. She was chained in a little enclosure, just in front of my window, into which those animals, when the gate happened to be left open, occasionally found their way. The devices the wolf employed to get them in her power were very amusing. When she saw a pig in the vicinity of her kennel, she, evidently with the purpose of putting him off his guard, would throw herself on her side or back, wag her tail most lovingly, and look innocence personified. And this amiable demeanour would continue, until the grunter was beguiled within the length of her tether, when, in the twinkling of an eye, 'Richard was himself again.'

"Whilst young, her charges were invariably directed at the rear of the animal; and if she got hold of the tail, it was always taken off as clean as a cook would slice a carrot. Several pigs were under my own eye thus mutilated. When full-grown, however, she was not altogether satisfied with this fraction of a pig; and if one of a small size approached her too near, she would pitch bodily upon it, and seizing it crosswise in her mouth, as far as the length of her chain admitted, walk backwards and forwards with it in front of her kennel. The squeaks of the sufferer were, on these occasions, awfully piercing, and I have had difficulty in relieving them from duress. And no wonder, if the jaws of the wolf, as I have heard asserted, possess such power as to enable his teeth to penetrate a thin plate of iron."

As a pendant to this picture of abominable and deceitful conduct on the part of a domesticated wolf, we would contrast a generous action performed no longer ago than the autumn of 1850, by a bear in Osterdalen. Two women, with four children, were tending their cattle at a shealing far from home:—

"It was the duty of one of the women to tend the cattle in the forest, whilst the other occupied herself with household matters, and in looking after the children. It so happened, however, on the 23rd of last September, that whilst one of the women, as usual, watched the cattle, the other absented herself for a short time on a visit to a neighbour, leaving the children altogether to themselves. She had not been long away, before they perceived two large brown animals, which they took to be cows, on the outside of the fence, bordering the patch of pasture-ground contiguous to the hut. All children are curious, and indifferent to danger; without consideration, therefore, they climbed over the fence, and made up to the creatures. When the animals became aware of the near approach of the children, the larger of the two compelled the smaller to lie down at the foot of a tall pine, and then couched by its side, as if to protect it from harm. Whereupon, the least of the children—that of two years of age—without hesitation, toddled directly up to the animals, and laid itself down likewise, with its head resting on the belly of the larger one, humming at the same time some nursery-song, as if reposing on its mother's lap! The other children remained the while quiet spectators of the scene. When, however, the eldest had reflected a little, and had come to the conclusion that it was not a cow, but a bear—as was the fact—the child was thus toying with, she became sorely affrighted.

"Meanwhile the infant, who could not remain long in the same position, presently rose from its hairy couch, gathered some blue berries growing

hard by, and gave them to its bed-fellow, the bear, who immediately eat them out of the babe's hand! The child next plucked a sprig from a neighbouring bush, and offered it to the beast, which bit it in two, allowing the child to retain the one half!

"The woman who had the care of the children, on returning to the shealing, saw with her own eyes the bears as they were retreating into the forest; and when informed of the danger to which her charge had been exposed, she was horrified beyond expression."

A very different treatment was met with by our hunter himself, when, through ill-luck, a bear got the better of him in March, 1844—a great he-brute, whose spoils are now in the British Museum, but who seems very nearly to have added Mr. Lloyd's skull and skin to his own private collection. Our intrepid sportsman had advanced within some eight or ten paces of the animal's lair, before he became aware of so close a proximity with the enemy. As the brute rose Mr. Lloyd fired, but for this once appears to have missed his aim:—

"Be that as it may, on the discharge of my gun the beast at once rushed towards me. I had still left my second barrel, with which I ought, no doubt, to have destroyed him; but owing to his undulatory motion I could not, though I attempted more than once, catch a satisfactory sight; and it was not until he was within three or four paces that I fired, and then somewhat at random. Though my ball in this or the former instance (for in the one or the other, as subsequently ascertained, it went wide of the mark) wounded him very desperately, it having entered his neck near the shoulder, and passed into his body; yet it was not sufficient, unfortunately, to stop his course, for in a second or two he was upon me—not on his hind legs (the way in which it is commonly supposed the bear makes his attacks,) but on all-fours, like a dog; and in spite of a slight blow that I gave him on the head with the muzzle of my gun—for I had no time to apply the butt—he at once laid me prostrate.

"Had not the beast been so very near me when I fired the second barrel, it is probable, from his wounded state, I might have got out of his way; but flight on my part, from his near proximity, was then too late; and once in his clutches, and now that my gun was discharged, totally unarmed, the only resource left to me was to turn my face to the snow, that my features might not be mutilated, and to lie motionless; it being a generally received opinion in Scandinavia, that if the bear supposes his victim to be dead, he the sooner desists from his assaults. In my case, however, though I played the defunct as well as I was able, the beast mauled me somewhat severely, about the head in particular; my body also suffered greatly from his ferocious attacks, which extended from the neck and shoulder downwards to the hip. But he did not attempt in any manner to hug or embrace me, as we in England seem to imagine his custom to be when carrying on offensive operations; nor did he seem to molest me in any way with his claws. All my wounds were, to the best of my belief, inflicted with his fangs.

"This goes somewhat to corroborate the idea that commonly prevails in Sweden, that in attacking a man, and beyond holding him fast with his claws, the bear never—in the manner of the lion or the tiger—strikes with his paw, which they say is his usual habit when making an onset on horses or cattle. If this be true, it is well; as otherwise, from the very great muscular power of his arm, annihilation would probably quickly follow the blow. But after all, no inference can fairly be drawn from my case, as the bear's forbearance towards me might have arisen simply from my remaining quite passive. Had I, on the contrary, been on my legs, and offered resistance, I might possibly have felt, not only the weight of his paws, but the pressure of his embraces.

"Neither at the time of receiving my first fire,

nor whilst making his rush, did the bear, as is usually the case when enraged, utter his usual half-roar, half-growl. Even when I was lying at his mercy, no other than a sort of subdued growl, similar to that of a dog when disturbed whilst gnawing a bone, was made by the beast; and so far from coming at me with open jaws, as one would suppose to be the case with a wild beast when making his onset, his mouth at the time was altogether closed.

"The pain I suffered from his long-continued attacks on my body was bearable. When he had my limbs in his jaws, it more resembled their being stuck in a huge vice than anything else; but when his jaws grasped, as they did, the whole crown of my head—during which I distinctly felt the fleshy part of his mouth to overlap my forehead—and his fangs very deliberately scored my head, my sufferings were intense. The sensation of his fangs slowly grating over the bare skull, was not at all that of a sharp blow, as is often the case when a wound is inflicted, but rather, though very much more protracted, the crunch one feels during the extraction of a tooth.

"From certain circumstances, I have reason to believe the bear continued to maltreat me for nearly three minutes. As I perfectly retained my senses the whole time, my feelings, whilst in this horrible situation, are beyond the power of description. But at length the incessant attacks of my gallant little dog drew the beast's attention from me, and I had the satisfaction to see him retreat, though at a very slow pace, into the adjoining thicket, where he was at once lost to view."

This was indeed a providential escape; and though severely mauled, the huntsman was able to make his way, some seven or eight miles, to his quarters, and, with an effort, to take the field again four days afterwards. Had it not been for his wearing his hair closely cropped, he would certainly have been scalped. May the shaven head of the Grand Turk come as safely out of the clutch of the Great Bear of Russia!

Mr. Lloyd gives full particulars concerning the hunting of the elk. Sportsmen follow him in winter by means of their skidor or snowskates, often, though not always, accompanied and assisted by well-trained dogs. In this way the same elk may be followed for several consecutive days, and, under favourable circumstances, when the snow is deep, and its surface sufficiently hardened to support the skidor, but not the elk, a few hours will sometimes bring the chase to a successful conclusion. The Swedes have a curious fancy about the effect of music on the elk:—

"We have the saying in England, that great fiddlers are never good for much besides. But if there is truth in the story that was current in Dalecarlia, when I last visited that province, the best scrapers on cat-gut are, at all events, the most successful elk-shooters. How the idea was hit upon I am at a loss to divine; but it is affirmed, that if a man places himself in ambush, and plays the violin (the particular tune I know not), the deer, if within hearing, will forthwith make up to the spot, when their doom is usually soon decided. During 1851, or 1852, however, a man in the parish of Wenjan, whilst adopting this expedient, was nearly forfeiting his own life. I could never get at the rights of the story; but it would seem that on the elks nearing the ambush, where, instead of dulcet sounds, they were greeted very differently, they became so enraged as to make a furious charge at the unfortunate wight, and maltreated him to that degree with their hoofs and antlers, that it was with extreme difficulty he made good his retreat; and not altogether unscathed either, for his wounds were so severe as to confine him to bed for more than a month afterwards. The poor fiddler himself was unharmed; but he had two comrades in ambush at a little distance. Owing, however, to fright, or some hitch or other, the mischief was done, and

the elks had retreated before the men came to the rescue."

The Swedish superstitions connected with the swallow are singular and poetical:—

"In Scandinavia the swallow is looked upon with a sort of love and reverence; and it is considered sinful to destroy the bird or its nest. This kindly feeling towards it is said to have thus originated:

"When our Saviour was crucified, a little bird came and perched upon the cross, peered sorrowfully down upon the sufferer and twitted, "Huga-vala, svara, svara Honom"—that is, console, console, console Him; and hence it obtained the name of *Svala*. In consequence of the commiseration thus evinced by the swallow towards the Redeemer, Heaven ordained that blessings and prosperity should ever afterwards attend on those who protected it and its nest.

"It is furthermore said that, for a long time afterwards, it would often sit upon the cross; but when this was taken down by the enemies of Christendom, and buried in the earth, it flew sorrowing away from the spot. When, however, at an after-period the cross was recovered, it returned, and frequently made it its resting-place. For this cause *Kors-messa*, or Holyrood-day, was marked with a swallow on many *Run-stafvar*, or Runic staves—the time tallying with the migration of that bird.

In Scania the superstitious feeling towards the swallow is carried somewhat far. They say, that if one shoots at, or otherwise molests this bird, it is sure, in return, to salute the enemy in the eye, and that the disagreeable application will inevitably cause total blindness."

The woodcuts of animals in these volumes are very beautiful, and would be worthy of the works of Bell and Yarell. Some of the landscapes, as we can testify, having visited the scenes, are truthful and spirited. The historical plates, representing adventures in the life of Gustavus, do not deserve praise, and, as well as the episode they illustrate, might have been omitted with advantage to an interesting work in which they are certainly out of place.

A Popular Account of the Ancient Egyptians. Revised and Abridged from his larger Work, by Sir J. Gardner Wilkinson, D.C.L., F.R.S., &c. 2 vols. Murray.

In his previous work on the Ancient Egyptians, Sir Gardner Wilkinson gave a most complete account of the manners and customs of that remarkable people. It immediately became a standard book, indispensable to the scholar who felt an interest in the Egyptians and Israelites, or Greeks and Romans, since it brought before him not only the life of those who anciently inhabited Egypt, but also illustrated the Bible, and the writings of classical authors. Through several years it has retained its position. Yet its great cost and large size have prevented many a student from purchasing it, and many an ordinary reader from undertaking its perusal, so that it has been long wished that its author, the only fit person, should put the most important part of its contents into a popular form. This he has now done, and in the best possible manner. In these days of cheap books, an abridgment is too often an affair of paste and scissors, hastily 'got up,' and carelessly illustrated. But the beautiful work before us is a careful and judicious abstract, with all the best woodcuts of the larger volumes, to which much interesting matter and some new engravings have been added. There will be now no excuse for any person of respectable education continuing unac-

quainted with one of the most interesting subjects of archeology; and we cannot entertain a doubt that the work before us will aid materially in spreading a more general taste than formerly prevailed amongst us. Year after year fresh discoveries in the buried cities of the Assyrians, or the silent burial-grounds of Egypt, have increased the knowledge of ancient times; and invited, not in vain, fresh labourers into fields that seem inexhaustible in richness. Those whose fathers were considered great travellers if they visited a few countries of the Continent, are not content unless they traverse the East, and see almost every province of the ancient Roman Empire, and even more countries than ever acknowledged the sway of the Cæsars; and so those who stay at home travel further in their reading than did their ancestors, and by means of descriptions and representations, become acquainted with all the countries of the world, and with many of them during periods long passed by. To those who journey but in imagination, we can wish no better fortune than to have a Wilkinson for their guide.

Among the new matter the observations on art in modern times, particularly with reference to the improvement of public taste in this country, are worthy a careful perusal. From these we select the following passage on Ancient Egyptian art in relation to that of Nineveh:—

"The interest that attaches to Egyptian art is from its great antiquity. We see in it the first attempts to represent what in after times, and in some other countries, gradually arrived, under better auspices, at the greatest perfection; and we even trace in it the germ of much that was improved upon by those who had a higher appreciation of, and feeling for, the beautiful. For, both in ornamental art, as well as in architecture, Egypt exercised in early times considerable influence over other people less advanced than itself, or only just emerging from barbarism; and the various conventional devices, the lotus flowers, the sphinxes, and other fabulous animals, as well as the early Medusa's head, with a protruding tongue, of the oldest Greek pottery and sculptures, and the ibex, leopard, and above all the (Nile) 'goose and sun,' on the vases, show them to be connected with, and frequently directly borrowed from, Egyptian fancy. It was, as it still is, the custom of people to borrow from those who have attained to a greater degree of refinement and civilization than themselves; the nation most advanced in art led the taste; and though some had sufficient invention to alter what they adopted, and to render it their own, the original idea may still be traced whenever it has been derived from a foreign source. Egypt was long the dominant nation, and the intercourse established at a very remote period with other countries, through commerce or war, carried abroad the taste of this the most advanced people of the time; and so general seems to have been the fashion of their ornaments, that even the Nineveh marbles present the winged globe, and other well-known Egyptian emblems, as established elements of Assyrian decorative art. This fact would suffice to disprove the early date of the marbles hitherto discovered, which are in fact of a period comparatively modern in the history of Egypt; and recent discoveries have fully justified the opinion I ventured to express, when they were first brought to this country: 1. That they are not of archaic style, and that original Assyrian art is still to be looked for; 2. That they give evidences of the decadence, not the rise, of art; and 3. That they have borrowed much from Egypt, long the dominant country in power and art, and will be found to date within 1000 B.C. This, however, is far from lessening their importance; for the periods they chiefly illustrate—those of Salmanser and Semacherib, so closely connected with Hebrew

history—give an interest to them, which the oldest monuments of Assyria would fail to possess."

Notwithstanding all that has been said respecting the superiority of the Nineveh marbles to the sculptures of ancient Egypt, we think that Sir Gardner Wilkinson has here afforded very strong argument in favour of Egypt. For, apart from the weight which his opinion should have in matters of taste, it appears that his decision respecting the antiquity of the Assyrian sculptures, while it was at variance with that of most of the scholars who were engaged in studying these remains, was partly formed from a consideration of the relation of Egyptian art to Assyrian, the former in its decadence being in a measure the parent of the latter, to which it transmitted the marks of its decline. If this be true, it follows that Assyrian art, traceable to Egypt when it had far declined from its best state, can hardly be superior to the latter in that state. In some respects, indeed, the Assyrian artists approach nearer to the Greeks than do the Egyptians; but this is rather because they endeavour to imitate nature, instead of being content to conceal their want of skill under the mask of a conventional style.

The observations on Greek art, as partly derived from Egypt, seem to us no less just than those we have already quoted. Our author observes:—

"While Greece was still in its infancy, Egypt had long been the leading nation of the world; she was noted for her magnificence, her wealth, and power, and all acknowledged her pre-eminence in wisdom and civilization. It is not, therefore, surprising that the Greeks should have admitted into their early art some of the forms then most in vogue; and though the wonderful taste of that gifted people speedily raised them to a point of excellence never attained by the Egyptians or any others, the rise and first germs of art and architecture must be sought in the valley of the Nile. In the oldest monuments of Greece the sloping or pyramidal line constantly predominates; the columns in the oldest Greek order are almost purely Egyptian, in the proportions of the shaft, and in the form of its shallow flutes without fillets; and it is a remarkable fact that the oldest Egyptian columns are those which bear the closest resemblance to the Greek Doric."

The last-mentioned circumstance opens out a curious inquiry which we cannot in this place do more than indicate. The columns resembling the Doric are not only the oldest we know in Egypt, but appear to have been most used at a very early period, commencing about the time of Abraham; and this is the period to which Greek tradition points as that of the first migrations from Egypt to Greece. And it is not a little remarkable that the Greek pottery—with the device of the Nile goose and sun, and other strong resemblances to Egyptian art—is of that class which may be referred with certainty to a much earlier period than that of the ordinary Greek vases. We should not speak thus confidently were we not able to refer to an excellent paper by the first authority on such matters, Mr. Burgon, of the British Museum, whose 'Attempt to point out the Vases of Greece Proper which belong to the Heroic and Homeric Ages,' ('Transactions of the Royal Society of Literature,' vol. ii., New Series,) is a striking instance of how much may be effected by painstaking research, when aided by sound learning and judgment, in what has long appeared a barren field, and is of the greatest value as having

established certain facts which cannot but facilitate the labours of future inquirers.

It is gratifying to observe how cordially Sir Gardner approves of (ii. p. 259) the support which Government has recently given to real civilization by the formation of departments of science and art under the Board of Trade, and to see how much sympathy he feels for "the well-directed efforts" of the chiefs of those departments, who, amidst many difficulties and some discouragement, have done very much to advance the knowledge and the true interests of the English nation.

We have but one regret, and that is—that Egyptian history and mythology are so slightly touched on in the present volumes, we had almost said omitted. Considering their great and growing importance, and the author's excellent acquaintance with them, we cannot but lament the omission, although we are aware that much may be urged in excuse. We hope that in the next edition the want will be supplied, even should another volume be added to the work, in consequence of the difficulty of condensing and abridging disquisitions on subjects so embarrassed and abstruse.

Six Months in Italy. By George Stillman Hillard. 2 vols. Murray.

ALTHOUGH there are so many books on Italy, the subject is inexhaustible, and it is interesting to see how the classic land strikes an American traveller. With the mere descriptive and narrative part of Mr. Hillard's book we are less concerned. In this little novelty or originality could be expected, and the author has evidently used guide-books and other open aids as much as his own notes and recollections in compiling the work. By this diligence in the library, as well as activity and intelligence in actual travel, a most complete and authentic account has been prepared of some of the chief scenes of Italy. Without a mind previously well stored with information, and a heart awake to all the influences of the land of pilgrimage, such a work could not have been written. The details of description we pass by, with the general praise of fulness and accuracy, and give a few extracts in which the spirit of the book is strikingly displayed. We begin with a characteristic instance—the reflection suggested on entering Venice by railway. All ordinary tourists on this occasion have a stereotype expression of horror at the desecration of old poetic scenes; but Mr. Hillard boldly dissents from any such sentimental regrets:—

"On the morning of November the 13th I left Venice for Verona, crossing the lagoon, and proceeding as far as Vicenza, by the railway. This railway is usually regarded as a most incongruous element in the scenery and associations of Venice, and much sentimental regret is expressed at the necessity of entering or leaving it in this way. But I cannot join in such lamentations. They seem to me to flow from an essentially superficial theory as to the source of that class of emotions, which a place like Venice gives birth to. Setting aside the merely practical element—the fact that, by multiplying the means of communication, the benefits and the pleasures of travel are extended to a continually increasing class—have not the great results and achievements of modern civilization a certain feeling of their own, all the more impressive when brought into comparison with what is purely sentimental, romantic, and imaginative? I confess that as I saw this noble railway spanning the lagoon with its two hundred and twenty-two

arches, it seemed to me all the grander from its very incongruity. It was an artery by which the living blood of to-day is poured into the exhausted frame of Venice. Venice is the beautiful legacy of a past age; an age of pictures, palaces, and cathedrals, when life, like a flower-garden, ran more to ornament than to use, and was more made up of exhilarating sensations than of homely duties. The railroad is one of the symbols of a new civilization, in which wealth and genius are spent in lightening the burdens of common life; the growth of an age of schools, hospitals, and alms-houses, in which the privileges of the few are giving ground before the rights of the many. Here these two forms of civilization meet and blend like the light of daylight, and of evening, in the western sky. Old memories are twined with fresh and budding hopes. The railway not only connects Venice with the mainland, but the past and the future. It is an ennobling thought that the spirit of man is ever young, and that if it has ceased to speak in cathedrals and campaniles, it is yet vocal in railways, tubular bridges, and magnetic telegraphs. The productive power of nature, as it is differentiated by space, shows itself in pine-trees or in palms; and from the teeming brain of man there springs in one age a gondola, in another a steamer; at one period a Cologne Cathedral, at another a Menai bridge. Let us be thankful that we, who are now alive, have both the 'old fields' and the 'new corn.'

If the two feelings could not co-exist, the buoyant hopeful anticipation of the future would be ill exchanged for mere dreamy romantic admiration of the past. But Mr. Hillard shows all through his book that he is as enthusiastic in his love of historic and classic associations as the most accomplished scholar or imaginative poet. The next section to that on Venice and its railway is on Verona, and commences with the remark, that "In Verona are two things to be seen: one by the eye, and one by the mind; the former is the amphitheatre, and the latter Romeo and Juliet." To the invisible glories of the place allusion is thus made:—

"Over the whole town the spirit of Shakespeare broods. He is its spiritual lord. His immortal lovers have touched its towers with light, and mingled the breath of passion with its breezes. I believe there are no authentic memorials left on which the most credulous fancy can repose. The moon still shines as when Romeo talked with Juliet in her father's garden, but the walls which the lover 'o'er-perched,' and the 'fruit-tree tops,' have long since disappeared. That which is shown as Juliet's tomb, has about as much claim to the honour as the barber's basin in Don Quixote had to be Mambrino's helmet. But as a man thinks, so it is. A porcelain nest-egg is to the eye as good as any other, and an old wash-trough serves well enough to call forth that unimaginative enthusiasm, which is only aroused by some object addressed to the senses. The tomb which Shakespeare has built will outlast the amphitheatre, and endure as long as love and grief twine the rose and the cypress in the garland of life."

Familiar as the subject is, the reader will be pleased with the description of the Colosseum, and the thoughts suggested by it:—

"If as a building the Colosseum was open to criticism, as a ruin it is perfect. The work of decay has stopped short at the exact point required by taste and sentiment. The monotonous ring of the outer wall is everywhere broken, and, instead of formal curves and perpendicular lines, the eye rests upon those interruptions and unexpected turns which are the essential elements of the picturesque, as distinguished from the beautiful and the sublime; and yet so much of the original structure is left, that the fancy can without effort piece out the rents and chasms of time, and line the interior with living forms. When a building is abandoned to decay, it is given over to the dominion of Nature,

whose works are never uniform. When the Colosseum was complete, vast as it was, it must have left upon the mind a monotonous impression of sameness, from the architectural repetitions which its plan included; but now that it is a vast ruin, it has all that variety of form and outline which we admire in a Gothic cathedral. Not by rule and measure have the huge stones been clipped and broken. No contriving mind has told what masses should be loosened from the wall, or where they should lie when fallen. No hand of man has trained the climbing plants in the way they should go. All has been left to the will of time and chance, and the result is, that, though there is everywhere resemblance, there is nowhere identity. A little more or a little less of decay—a chasm more or less deep—a fissure more or less prolonged—a drapery of verdure more or less flowing—give to each square yard of the Colosseum its own peculiar expression. It is a wilderness of ruin in which no two fragments are exactly alike.

"The material of which the Colosseum was built is exactly fitted to the purposes of a great ruin. It is travertine of a rich, dark, warm colour, deepened and mellowed by time. There is nothing glaring, harsh, or abrupt in the harmony of tints. The blue sky above, and the green earth beneath, are in unison with a tone of colouring not unlike the brown of one of our own early winter landscapes. The travertine is also of a coarse grain and porous texture, not splintering into points and edges, but gradually corroding by natural decay. Stone of such a texture everywhere opens laps and nooks for the reception and formation of soil. Every grain of dust that is borne through the air by the lazy breeze of summer, instead of sliding from a glassy surface, is held where it falls. The rocks themselves crumble and decompose, and thus turn into a fertile mould. Thus, the Colosseum is throughout crowned and draped with a covering of earth, in many places of considerable depth. Trailing plants clasp the stones with arms of verdure; wild flowers bloom in their seasons, and long grass nods and waves on the airy battlements. Life has everywhere sprouted from the trunk of death. Insects hum and sport in the sunshine: the burnished lizard darts like a tongue of green flame along the walls, and birds make the hollow quarry overflow with their songs. There is something beautiful and impressive in the contrast between luxuriant life and the rigid skeleton upon which it rests. Nature seems to have been busy in binding up with gentle hand the wounds and bruises of time. She has covered the rents and chasms of decay with that drapery which the touch of every spring renews. She has peopled the solitude and the silence with forms and voices. She has clothed the nakedness of desolation, and crowned the majesty of ruin. She has softened the stern aspect of the scene with the hues of undying youth, and brightened the shadows of dead centuries with the living light of vines and flowers.

"As a matter of course, everybody goes to see the Colosseum by moonlight. The great charm of the ruin under this condition is, that the imagination is substituted for sight, and the mind for the eye. The essential character of moonlight is hard rather than soft. The line between light and shadow is sharply defined, and there is no gradation of colour. Blocks and walls of silver are bordered by, and spring out of chasms of blackness. But moonlight shrouds the Colosseum in mystery. It opens deep vaults of gloom where the eye meets only an ebon wall, but upon which the fancy paints innumerable pictures in solemn, splendid, and tragic colours. Shadowy forms of emperor and lictor, and vestal virgin and gladiator and martyr, come out of the darkness, and pass before us in long and silent procession. The breezes which blow through the broken arches are changed into voices, and recall the shouts and cries of a vast audience. By day, the Colosseum is an impressive fact; by night, it is a stately vision. By day, it is a lifeless form; by night, a vital thought.

"The Colosseum should by all means be seen by a bright starlight, or under the growing sickle of a young moon. The fainter ray and deeper gloom

bring out more strongly its visionary and ideal character. When the full moon has blotted out the stars, it fills the vast gulf of the building with a flood of spectral light, which falls with a chilling touch upon the spirit; for then the ruin is like a 'corpse in its shroud of snow,' and the moon is a pale watcher by its side. But when the walls, veiled in deep shadow, seem a part of the darkness in which they are lost—when the stars are seen through their chasms and breaks, and sparkle along the broken line of the battlements—the scene becomes another, though the same; more indistinct, yet not so mournful; contracting the sphere of sight, but enlarging that of thought; less burdening, but more suggestive."

We omit the account of a tawdry exhibition made by some German artists, who illuminated the ruin with different coloured artificial flames,—a spectacle which the author says "suggested debasing comparisons, from the association of such things with the illusions of the stage." He closes his own reflections with this fine passage:—

"But under all aspects, in the blaze of noon, at sunset, by the light of the moon or stars—the Colosseum stands alone and unapproached. It is the monarch of ruins. It is a great tragedy in stone, and it softens and subdues the mind like a drama of *Æschylus* or *Shakespeare*. It is a colossal type of those struggles of humanity against an irresistible destiny, in which the tragic poet finds the elements of his art. The calamities which crushed the house of *Atreus* are symbolised in its broken arches and shattered walls. Built of indestructible materials, and seemingly for eternity—of a size, material, and form to defy the 'strong hours' which conquer all, it has bowed its head to their touch, and passed into the inevitable cycle of decay. 'And this too shall pass away'—which the Eastern monarch engraved upon his signet-ring is carved upon these Cyclopean blocks. The stones of the Colosseum were once water; and they are now turning into dust. Such is ever the circle of nature. The solid is changing into the fluid, and the fluid into the solid; and that which is unseen is alone indestructible. He does not see the Colosseum aright, who carries away from it no other impressions than those of form, size, and hue. It speaks an intelligible language to the wiser mind. It rebukes the peevish and consoles the patient. It teaches us that there are misfortunes which are clothed with dignity, and sorrows that are crowned with grandeur. As the same blue sky smiles upon the ruin which smiled upon the perfect structure, so the same beneficent Providence bends over our shattered hopes and our answered prayers."

At Florence the account of the works of art displays much ability and taste. With the disappointment felt in the Church of Santa Croce, most travellers will sympathise, so far as the monuments are concerned:—

"Of the monuments in the Church of Santa Croce, not one is in the highest style of art, and it is a little disconcerting to the stranger to find that the most magnificent of all is erected to the memory of a man of whom he probably never heard, the Chancellor Marsupini. Over all of them the genius of Allegory has breathed from her lips of ice. Painting, sculpture, and architecture appear as mourners around the urn of Michael Angelo. Italy weeps over the dust of Alfieri. A figure which may serve either for Political Science or History crowns the monument of Machiavelli; and Poetry deplores the death of Dante. For a monument in a church, a mural tablet with an appropriate inscription, surmounted by a bust or a statue, is all that gratitude, sensibility, or good taste can require, and is always safe. The attempt to do more than this often leads to something tasteless and reprehensible; and when this danger is avoided, the value of a monument, as a memorial, is apt to be impaired by its positive excellence as a work of art."

The author's remarks on the statue of the *Dying Gladiator* in the capitol we quote, as

an example of his manner of speaking of works of art:—

"The last room into which the traveller passes contains several works of the highest excellence, and, above all, the *Dying Gladiator*. A statue of such surpassing merit as this should have a room by itself, for in its presence it is difficult to look at anything else. It is now admitted by the best authorities that the statue is a dying Gaul and not a gladiator, but to the popular mind the old appellation will cling for ever. Byron's immortal stanza—an exquisite creation of genius, equal to the theme which inspired it—is alone enough to fasten it there with associations that can never be severed. But there is no work of art respecting which such discussions are more intrusive or unnecessary. We do not ask whom it represents, because we are so wholly absorbed with what it is. Its power and pathos are independent of time, place, and condition.

"What is it that we see before us? A man dying; nothing more. It is that which happens to all men; the only inevitable fact in every life. Nor is it a marked or conspicuous person. He is not a hero, or a poet, or an orator. The form is not ideal, the head is not intellectual, the lips are not refined. The shadows of great thoughts never darkened that commonplace brow, nor did the touch of beauty ever thrill along those coarse fibres. But the charm and power of the statue consist in the amazing truth with which the two great elements of humanity and mortality are delineated. A vigorous animal life is suddenly stopped by the touch of death, and the 'sensible warm motion' becomes a 'kneaded clod' before our eyes. The artist gives us all the pathos and the tragedy of death without its ghastliness and horror. The dying man is no longer a trivial person, stained with coarse employments and vulgar associations, but an immortal spirit breaking through its walls of clay. The rags of life fall away from him, and he puts on the dignity and grandeur of death. We feel ourselves in the presence of that awful power, before whose icy sceptre all mortal distinctions are levelled. Life and death are all that for a time we can admit into the mind.

"As the sentiment and expression of this statue are admirable, so is the mechanical execution of the highest merit. The skill with which the physical effects of death upon the human frame are represented is most strongly felt by those whose professional training and experience make their judgment upon such points the most valuable. The hair short and crisp, and matted by the sweat of the death-struggle, the wrinkled brow, the drooping lid, the lips distended with pain, and the sinking languor of the whole frame, give proof of a patient eye and a skilful hand. No statue was ever more marked by simplicity, or more free from anything like extravagance or caricature. Such a subject presents many temptations, and, unless an artist's taste and judgment were equal to his genius, he would hardly have escaped falling into the weakness of overdoing the tragic element, and of laying such a weight upon our sympathies that they would have given way under the pressure. But here nothing has been done for effect. No vulgar applause is courted, and the decency and dignity of truth are scrupulously observed.

"If it be right to judge of works of art subjectively and not objectively—that is, exclusively by the effect which they leave upon the individual who contemplates them—I should put this work at the head of all the statues in the world. To me, none others were so expressive, so significant, so full of deep meaning. At each successive visit it seemed to be a new work, to reveal something which before had been unspoken, to awaken echoes which before had been silent. Though a solitary figure, taken in and comprehended by the eye at a single glance, it involves a broad circle of experience and suggestion. Such is ever the case with the creations which genius gives us when it walks in the way of truth, and, disdaining the morbid, the fantastic, and the grotesque, gives shape to our common visions, and reality to the universal dream.

"This statue is indissolubly associated with Byron's immortal stanza, which, familiar as it is, can no more become hackneyed than the relations of husband and father on which it is founded. From lines like these, which everybody reads and everybody remembers—especially when connected with objects of permanent and general interest—we learn how much we owe to the poets. Who, that has ever seen snow falling upon water, has not had a distinct pleasure in the sight, from the fine illustration of the brief duration of sensual pleasures which Burns has drawn from it?—

"Or like the snow-fall in the river,
A moment white—then melts for ever."

Who, that has ever beheld a scarlet maple in our autumn woods, has not felt that a new charm was given to it by the lovely image which it suggested to Bryant?—

"But 'neath yon crimson tree,
Lover to listening maid might breathe his flame,
Nor mark, within its roscate canopy,
Her blush of maiden shame."

So we, who look upon the statue since the stanza was written, see it by a finer light than ever shone upon it before. For us alone, the rude hut by the Danube is reared, and those young barbarians are sporting upon its banks. We may form some notion of our obligations, by imagining what would have been the emotions of a man of cultivation and sensibility, if the poet had suddenly put the lines into his hands, while he was standing before the statue. Would not something like the miracle of Pygmalion have taken place before his eyes? Would not the marble breast have appeared to heave with emotion, and the drooping brow to be darkened with suffering?—

Among the descriptions of places and scenery, notices of the people of Italy are introduced, which are good so far as national character can be observed by a passing traveller. English readers will be more interested with the chapter on the 'English in Italy,' the truth of which, notwithstanding some generous exaggeration, will be admitted. A few paragraphs we quote:—

"The English, indeed, are the true Romans. The magnificent lines—in which the national pride of Virgil makes the inferiority of his countrymen in art, eloquence, and science, an element of lofty commendation—are at this day applicable to the descendants of those painted Britons who stood in the poet's mind as the most obvious types of all that was remote, uncouth, and barbarous. They, like the Romans, are haughty to the proud and forbearing towards the weak. They force the mood of peace upon nations that cannot afford to waste their strength in unprofitable war. They are law-makers, road-makers, and bridge-makers. They are penetrated with the instinct of social order, and have the organ of political constructiveness. The English, too, as a general rule, are not at home in the region of art. They are either not sensitive to the touch of beauty, or affect not to be. Their artists are wanting in ideal grace and depth of sentiment. The manly genius of the nation disdains the tricks and colours of rhetoric. Their common speech is abrupt; and their public discourse plain, business-like, and conversational. A course of policy which all Christendom waits to hear is announced by a badly dressed gentleman, in a series of clumsy and fragmentary sentences, in which there is always good sense, but not always good grammar. The English noblemen and gentlemen have the taste which the patricians of Rome had for agricultural and rural life. They have the same liking for rough, athletic sports; the same insensibility to animal pain and suffering; and in their personal habits, the same love of bathing—a taste which has quite died out upon the soil of Rome.

"The English residing or travelling upon the Continent would, if gathered together, make a large city. They carry England with them wherever they go. In Rome there is an English church, an English reading-room, an English druggist, an English grocer, and an English tailor. As Eng-

land is an island, so they everywhere form an insular community, upon which the waves of foreign influence beat in vain. This peculiarity penetrates to the individual. A French or German *table-d'hôte* is a social continent; but an English coffee-room, at the hour of dinner, is an archipelago of islets, with deep straits of reserve and exclusiveness flowing between. Travellers of other nations learn to conform to the manners and customs of the people about them; avoiding the observation attracted by singularity. Not so the Englishman: he boldly faces the most bristling battery of comment and notice. His shooting jacket, checked trowsers, and brown gaiters proclaim his nationality before he begins to speak; he rarely yields to the seduction of a moustache; he is inflexibly loyal to tea; and will make a hard fight before consenting to dine at an earlier hour than five.

"The English in Italy, as on the Continent generally, are not liked; but, on the other hand, they are never despised. They carry about with them the impress of qualities which extort respect, not unmingled with fear. Too proud to stoop and too cold to sympathise, they are too honest to flatter and too brave to dissemble. Truth, courage, and justice—those lion virtues that stand round the throne of national greatness—shape their blunt manners and their downright speech. No thoughtful Italian can help honouring the tenacity with which an Englishman clings to his own convictions of what is right and becoming, without regard to the judgments which others may form or express; nor can he fail to confess that the position and influence of Italy would have been far different, had more of that manly element been mingled in the blood of her people. Every conscientious Catholic must needs respect the fidelity which Englishmen show to the religious institutions of their country; the regularity with which they attend upon public worship in the chapels of their own faith; and their careful abstinence from ordinary amusements and occupations on Sundays. This uncompromising hold upon their own interpretation of right is sometimes pushed to an extreme, and often turns an unamiable aspect towards others; but without it there is neither national greatness nor individual worth.

"The English are proud of their own country, and for that surely no one can blame them. They are proud of its history, of its literature, of its constitution; and, especially, of the rank it holds and the power it wields at the present time. To this national pride they have a fair right. A new sense of the greatness of England is gathered from travelling on the Continent; for, let an Englishman go where he will, the might and majesty of his country seem to be hanging over him like an unseen shield. Let but a hand of violence be laid upon an English subject, and the great British lion, which lies couchant in Downing-street, begins to utter menacing growls and shake his invincible locks. An English man-of-war seems to be always within one day's sail of everywhere. Let political agitation break out in any port on the globe, if there be even a roll of English broadcloth or a pound of English tea to be endangered thereby, within forty-eight hours an English steamer or frigate is pretty sure to drop anchor in the harbour, with an air which seems to say, 'Here I am: does anybody want anything of me?'

Mr. Hillard speaks here like a descendant of the men of the time of Cromwell and of Blake. We fear that he describes things rather as they ought to be than as they are. But it is gratifying to find that the prestige of England's greatness still appears such as is here described. We give only one other extract from a chapter which may contain matter of novelty to some readers—the account of the popular literature of the Papal States at the present day:—

"Rome is the centre of a popular literature which circulates extensively throughout the neighbourhood. Its productions are numerous, and divided into

several classes. The oldest among them are stories from the romances of chivalry, most of them drawn from the two great fountain-heads of romantic literature, King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table, and Charlemagne. Ancient mythology and history furnish the materials for another division, with which the legends of saints are sometimes strangely intermingled; and moral and religious subjects, and the adventures and miracles of holy men, are also a fruitful source of popular reading.

"The Romans have also a number of satirical and humorous poems, written in their own local dialect, marked by a rich though coarse vein of humour, and reflecting the manners and characteristics of the common people with great fidelity. In Rome, and indeed throughout Italy, books recording the lives and sayings of famous jesters, are great favourites with the lower orders. Some of these are in prose and some in verse.

"Besides the above, there are to be found in the Papal States a great number of poems which are miscellaneous in their character, and not to be ranked under any particular class. Among them are tales in verse of pure invention, political and satirical ballads, versified proverbs and moral sayings, fables, and especially love-poems which are more characterised by fire and passion than by tenderness or sentiment. The Italian language runs easily into the mould of verse. Every event in life which assumes the least consequence—a birth, wedding, or death in a noble family—a nun's taking the veil—the arrival of a distinguished stranger—a literary or scientific meeting—produces a luxuriant crop of sonnets and occasional verses, which pass away and are forgotten like the flowers which decorate a ball room. This 'fatal facility' of verse-making is also quite common among the lower orders, and every rural neighbourhood has its own indigenous growth of songs and ballads."

In the latter part of his second volume Mr. Hillard gives notices of the works of the most distinguished travellers in Italy, including Montaigne, Evelyn, Addison, Byron, Rogers, Eustace, Lady Morgan, Hans Andersen, and others, English and foreign. To Murray's 'Handbooks' for 'Northern Italy' and 'Central Italy' warm acknowledgments of commendation and gratitude are paid; and the praise is just, as these are among the best of that valuable series of publications. On particular subjects other travellers in Italy have furnished fuller descriptions; but for the general tourist Mr. Hillard has provided as useful and agreeable a supplement to Murray's Handbooks as can be found in a single work.

The Gentile Nations; or, the History and Religion of the Egyptians, Assyrians, Babylonians, Medes, Persians, Greeks, and Romans. By George Smith, F.A.S. Longman and Co.

This treatise forms the third and concluding portion of a work intended by the author to be an 'epitome of the history and religion of the world from the Creation to the Birth of Christ.' Having in two previous volumes treated of the patriarchal ages of the world, and of the annals of the Hebrew people, the author now presents the results of his researches as to the Gentile nations. The connexion of sacred and profane history has always been an attractive and important department of study. Some of the most learned of all writers, such as Selden, Kircher, and Prideaux, have opened up wonderful fields of research in this direction. Other authors have embodied in popular works the chief results of the inquiries of these learned men. The recent discoveries in Egyptian, Persian,

and Assyrian inscriptions have awakened new interest in the subject. Of these Mr. Smith has made use in his treatise. He has presented as complete and clear a view of the religious systems of the great gentile nations of antiquity as could be prepared from existing records. Of the general history the sketches are more meagre, the main design of the book being to trace the developments of religious faith and practice, or rather the corruptions of primitive truth, and the rise and spread of idolatry and its attendant follies and crimes. These the author ascribes to the direct influence of Satanic agency. In treating, for instance, of the ancient oracles, he maintains that evil spirits were the immediate prompters of the responses. This is a point on which it is somewhat idle to argue, and many will think Mr. Smith too credulous. If the maxim is good, *Nec Deus intersit nisi dignus vindice nodus*, we think it is equally so, *nec diabolus intersit*. Priestcraft and superstition, with the usual motives and influences of human nature, suffice to explain most of the phenomena. The ancients began to despise the oracles long before the Christian era, when poetry describes them as struck dumb. The wits used to laugh at the bad verses which were occasionally sent out, and the philosophers pitied the credulity of the vulgar. Demosthenes told the Athenians plainly that the oracle at Delphi was 'Philippized,' and generally in public affairs the longest purse or the strongest arm could command the best response. The history of oracles would form a remarkable chapter in the annals of priestly sagacity and of popular delusion. Mr. Smith does not seem to know that the guardians of the temple of Delphi were also the bankers of many States, who there deposited their treasures, protected by the supposed sanctity of the place far more effectually than by walls or garrisons. The Phocians were the first to break through this fence of ideal sacredness; and when no divine judgment overtook them for the sacrilege, they continued to use the deposited gold for the pay of their mercenaries, by which means they stood their ground for many years against the allied Greeks. Satanic agency of a special kind may at times have been exercised, but the chief facts connected with the ancient oracles are easily accounted for on the common principles at work in human life and history. We cannot attempt to give any outline of the extensive field of research over which Mr. Smith's book takes the reader. But for those to whom the subjects are new we select one short passage, which indicates the nature of the inquiries as to the connexion of sacred and profane history. The author is commencing the account of the idolatrous religion of ancient Egypt, which even in its worst period retained a few symbolic traces of patriarchal religious truth:—

"It has been already stated that anciently this people believed in the unity of the supreme God; and that human representations or incarnations of him were at first regarded as Divine, rather by union with him, or emanation from him, than from their intrinsic nature; and hence had the name of the Supreme added to their own. Passing by all the speculation of Greek writers, and ascending to the primitive state of the Egyptian faith, there appears abundant reason for identifying its theology with the great departure from patriarchal religion which took place at Babel. Hence the triad,—Osiris, Isis, Horus. Again, we have Amout, Mout, Chons. In both these instances the triad consists of father, mother, and son. From what has been already stated, there can be no reasonable

doubt that these deities arose out of a corrupted tradition of the first pair, in combination with the promised incarnate Seed, given under different names. It is, however, sufficiently evident that the circumstances of Noah, the second great father of the world, and his sons, had a great influence in the formation of the original idolatry of Egypt.

"We have sufficient proof of this in the obvious identity of Osiris and Noah,—a fact confirmed by the mutilation common to both, and the manner in which it was made prominent, and sacred in the case of the Egyptian deity. It is observable that Osiris and Isis are celebrated as the only deities worshipped in every part of Egypt; the birth of the son being sometimes regarded as prospective and approaching.

"This allusion to the Arkite family is further corroborated. Kneph, according to Wilkinson, represented the idea of 'the Spirit of God, as it moved upon the face of the waters.' He was commonly exhibited with a ram's head, and regarded specially as the god of the Nile. But this deity was supposed to merge into three:—first, Kneph, the spirit; then Ptah, proceeding from him, and thence regarded as his son; and lastly, Khem, (whose name is identical with the scriptural Ham,) who was supposed to rule over the procreation of the human species.

"Probably all these triads were at first identical, and intended to exhibit a personification of the supreme God under allusive representations of man's primitive history, and that of the Noachic family. But the moving agent in this process, although insidious, was not concealed. The asp was sacred to Kneph. The most poisonous winged serpent in the land was made the personification of the Creator and ruling spirit! In fact, the serpent was the type of dominion! Its figure was in consequence affixed to the head-dress of Egyptian kings; and a prince, on his accession to the throne, was entitled to wear this distinctive badge of royalty. This Satanic assumption is imbedded in the language to a considerable extent. 'M. Champollion has satisfactorily accounted for the name Uraeus, given to the snake, by suggesting that the word derives its origin and signification from *Ouro*, in Coptic, 'a king,' answering, as Horapollo tells us, to the Greek βασιλιάς, 'royal'; and it is from this last word that the name 'basilisk' has been applied to the asp.' Of Ptah it may be necessary to observe, that he was regarded as the Lord of truth, and is said to have been produced in the shape of an egg from the mouth of Kneph, and represented the creative power of Deity. It cannot escape observation how closely this resembles the Divine Word. Wilkinson says, 'The form of this deity is generally a mummy'; but Cory shrewdly suspects that the bandaged figure rather represents 'an infant swathed, as is the custom in the Mediterranean.'"

"The principle of idolatrous substitution and representation having been once adopted, it was susceptible of infinite expansion and change. Hence, in the classic age, we find the great triad represented as composed of Osiris, Horus, Typhon: and Horus is set forth by Plutarch as the son of Osiris and Isis, begotten before they themselves were born, and born with them: a singular, but remarkable, allusion to the pre-existence of the promised Seed."

After describing the forms of Egyptian idol-worship, and the chief points of their religious belief and usages, the author observes:—

"This theology, therefore, whilst it preserved many important truths respecting the nature of God, and his promises of mercy to the fallen race of man, completely overlaid them with a gross and elaborate idolatrous machinery, which, if it did not entirely conceal, must to a fearful extent have neutralized their influence. The great deceiver of man had pervaded this corrupt scheme with such multiplied exhibitions of the form in which he successfully urged the first temptation of mankind, that it appears as if, while the first object of the system was to isolate man from God by substituting any thing, from the image of a man to a live cat or

beetle, as an object of worship, its secondary design was to induce a recognition of the serpent-form as the highest exhibition of Deity. One important point is, therefore, evident: The theology of Egypt, instead of elevating the mind, and shedding on the spirit of the worshipper a clearer and purer light than human reason can afford,—which, in fact, is the proper province of this Divine science,—darkened the intellect, and prostrated the man before dogs, cats, and beetles.

"We direct attention, in the next place, to the morals inculcated by this system: and here it is cheering to observe, that, vile and contemptible as were many of the objects of worship, this system was free from the reproach resting on many so-called religious schemes: it did not repudiate all connexion with morals. On the contrary, moral character was deemed an integral element of religion. It was, indeed, the great merit of the religion of Egypt, that it taught the observance of moral law with reference to a future judgment. While making this statement, as an opinion which appears to be fully warranted by a general review of the system, it is but just to say that others have from the same premises reached an opposite conclusion."

We give this detached extract only to show the nature of the subjects which Mr. Smith has with much learned industry sought to elucidate. His work contains many remarkable facts collected from the writings of antiquity, and from the monumental and other remains which modern explorers have discovered. The general result of all such investigations is not only to multiply evidences of the historical truth of the scriptures, but to confirm the moral and religious teaching of the divine revelation, by displaying the actual condition of the gentile nations. The book is, in fact, a learned historical commentary on the Apostle Paul's brief description of the state of the world in the beginning of his epistle to the Romans. Mr. Smith has in his 'Sacred Annals' made a valuable contribution to the literature of the Christian evidences, as well as of ancient history.

NOTICES.

The Poetical Works of Alexander Pope. Edited by Robert Carruthers. With a Life of Pope, and Extracts from his Correspondence. Illustrated. 4 vols. Ingram, Cooke, and Co.

JOHNSON, Warton, Bowles, and Roscoe have already collected all the most important facts connected with the life of Pope. But from various recent publications relating to these times, and from manuscripts to which he has had access, Mr. Carruthers has been enabled to correct some errors in previous memoirs, and to add some interesting particulars about the poet's life. The biography contains many extracts from Pope's correspondence, which throw original light on certain parts of his history. His literary and personal friendships and hostilities are fully revealed, and also his relations with Teresa and Martha Blount will be better understood from the facts here narrated. Mr. Carruthers has exercised great industry and care in collecting and arranging his materials, and he has written a very interesting piece of biography. In editing the poems he also displays diligence and judgment. The notes, whether historical, biographical, or critical, are in matter and in number well adapted for popular use. As to the general merit of Pope's poetry, about which there was once vehement controversy, Johnson and Warton in former days, and more recently Byron and Lord Carlisle, have expressed the true estimate of all persons of taste and sense. The characteristics of Pope's style are well described by Mr. Carruthers, and its influence on English literature justly stated in the concluding chapter of the 'Memoir.' "Besides harmonious versification, Pope taught correctness and precision of thought, and brought slovenly execution into irredeemable disgrace."

It is important to point to one classic standard,

limited in design but unrivalled in execution, in which correctness is combined with poetical vigour and beauty, and the patient toils of genius are seen resulting in works of consummate taste and elegance." This edition of Pope's poems deserves to be popular. It has had every advantage in its editor, and the numerous illustrations are superior to what usually appear in cheap publications.

A History of Greece, from the Earliest Times to the Roman Conquest. By William Smith, LL.D. Illustrated by One Hundred Wood Engravings. Murray: Walton and Maberly.

SEVERAL excellent school histories of Greece have been of late years published, but we have no hesitation in pronouncing this far the best. In its plan it is more comprehensive than any other, special chapters being devoted to the history of Greek literature and art. In the narrative of historical events Dr. Smith has had the advantage of consulting the latest works, among which that of Mr. Grote is pre-eminent. Dr. Smith, in a just and graceful tribute to the merit of that work, says that "it forms as great an epoch in the study of the history of Greece as Niebuhr's has done in the study of the history of Rome." A still higher testimony to the research and ability of Mr. Grote's history is given in Dr. Smith's avowal that in almost all cases he has been compelled to adopt his conclusions, "even where they were in opposition to generally received opinions and prejudices, as, for instance, in his views respecting the legendary history of Greece, the legislation of Lycurgus, the object of ostracism, the general working of the Athenian constitution, and the character of the Sophists." In the account of Greek literature the work of Colonel Mure has been of great assistance, of which due acknowledgment is made in the prefatory remarks. Dr. Smith's name, as a learned and accomplished scholar, is sufficient guarantee for the research and accuracy desirable in a historical treatise. He has also succeeded in rendering the book most attractive and interesting in its style, so as to be adapted for general reading as well as for educational use. The numerous engravings on wood, from drawings by Mr. George Scharf, add much to the value of the volume. Most of the drawings are celebrated scenes of buildings, sculptures, coins, and other objects of nature or art, directly illustrative of the history.

Janus, Lake Sonnets, and Other Poems. By David Holt. Pickering.

JANUS, the principal poem in this volume, is composed of a series of reflections on the Past and the Future. The thoughts are good, and the blank verse correct and spirited, of which let these lines serve as a sample:—

"Oh rich and regal Past! thine are the stores
Of wealth and wisdom—of exalted thought
And of heroic deed, which are the food
That nerves us to a lofty emulation
Of thy sublime examples. Thine the names—
The glorious names—that, in eternal youth,
Still stand before us as the beacon-lights
And pilot-stars to guide us in the paths
Of honour and of truth. Thine is the key
Which doth unlock so much which else would lie
Hid in the mystery of the Present; thine
The flaming torch that throws its varying gleams
So far into the shrouded Future. Thou
Art worthy of our love, oh lofty Past!
Take thee away, and we have lost full half
Of the rare beauty of the outer world,
And of the inner world within the soul,
Since doubly dear are all those thoughts and things
That are illumined by the sunset-light
Of old associations. All great souls
Have loved the Past, have recognised its claim
On our affections and our gratitude,
And working well and wisely in the Present,
And looking forth with faith into the Future,
Have yet been drawn to cast a backward look
Of lingering love upon the storied Past,
And feed upon its teachings manifold,
And the high moral beauty they reveal."

In regard to the prospects of the Future, after describing the progress of knowledge, and man's increasing mastery over nature, the author speaks of the spread of moral and religious truth, and the happy influences already apparent, working out better times for the earth and for man:—

"Oh mystic Future! that which lies in thee
Is hid with God, yet 'tis our steadfast faith,

That thou dost hold in thy serene embrace
The time when Error, Evil, and the throng
Of demons who now work the woe of Man
Shall be cut down and vanquished by the sword,
Clasp'd in the strong right-hand of sovereign Truth;
When sorrow, the rank after-growth of sin,
Shall be eradicated from the soul;
When Peace shall build her temple in the heart,
With none to question; and when holy Joy,
Serene and lofty, shall pour down her beams
On the uplifted countenance of man,
From an unclouded heaven; when wrong and strife
Shall be forgotten, and unkind shall dwell
In unity together; and when Earth,
Bright planet then—abode of happy souls—
Shall doff her mourning weeds, and be as Heaven."

Among the minor poems are some pieces of merit, as these lines, entitled *A Quiet Place*:—

"Forth to the green fields, after the great bustle
And weary turmoil in the town all day;
To sit among the leaves and hear their rustle,
Lovingly to the balmy evening gale,
Whispering in undertone its tender tale;
To watch the streamlet o'er its pebbles play,
And list its clear voice as it softly singeth
Sweet songs, which from its maid-guarded fountains
In the recesses of the lonely mountains,
Amid fair pastoral valleys far away,
And haunts of sylvan solitude, it bringeth,—
O quiet joy, that all our being thrills;
O blessed peace, that the whole spirit fills;
O charm to soothe away a thousand ills."

The *Lake Sonnets*, and other descriptive pieces, have not much in them to give general interest, but may be usefully transferred to the pages of local histories and guide-books.

The Last Mammoth. A Romance in Five Cantos. Hope and Co.

WE must give our readers a specimen of the nonsense that occasionally issues from the press. At first we thought that the author was in jest, and then it occurred to us that we had the *libretto* of the pantomime at some minor theatre, but we soon perceived that the poem was written in fine poetic frenzy many degrees beyond the sublime. To be fair to the author we do not select any extraordinary passage, but take the very first sentences of his prefatory argument, and the opening lines of one of the cantos. The account of the subject thus commences:—"Retiring to the extremities of the earth, the relics of some gigantic tenant of the world arrest the attention of Liberty, then escaping for a while from things of a more monstrous kind. She sinks down exhausted; while in her visions the Mammoth appears, as if suddenly reanimated, attempting to bear her onward, till at length, passing through the depths of an umbrageous glade, she beholds," &c. Canto the second thus opens:—

"But who o'er spanning ice-bound barriers far
Is yon bold speeding bright on spangled car?
Forth launching where translucent splendours merge
Into cerulean glories o'er the verge
Of the horizon; whence, like Cynthia chaste,
As o'er a green rough-swellung briny waste
Her shining trackless way she wondrous holds,
Her musings thus her fitful harp unfolds:
"Effulgence all.—But 'twas inherent Light,
Whose incommunicable lustre bright—
The concentration of original Mind—
Beam'd on no object of reflecting kind.
Cause, Operation, Influence, disclos'd
Nought of the Impulse which in them reposed,
And was the Source profound, a fountain seal'd?
No flood of Glory to be thence reveal'd
In tide of Moral symmetry to move;
Full pregnant with Intelligence to prove;
Forming no mirror faint fit to display
Of Origin, even one reflected ray?"

"Lo, who is this transcendently that rears
His umbrous wings, and glorious pioneers
The lustrous motions, as in order due
Confess'd sublime, all pass in full review?"

The asterisks are those of the author. Let them be to the reader as marks of wonder, or merriment, or sadness, as the poetry affects him.

The Old Field Officer; or, the Military and Sporting Adventures of Major Worthington. Edited by J. H. Stocqueler, author of the 'Handbook of British India.' 2 vols. A. and C. Black.
UNDER the guise of the history of the gallant Major Worthington, Mr. Stocqueler has put together some lively sketches of Indian life in the camp and in the field. In the campaign and triumphs of Lord Lake, and in the first Mahratta war, the

Major took part, and the account of these events will be read with interest. The editor brings his hero to Europe, and makes him fight as an amateur at Waterloo, of which battle and the action at Quatre Bras an animated description is given. The Major returns to India, and is engaged in the celebrated Pindare campaigns, so ably planned by the Marquis of Hastings, and was present at the siege of Bhurtpore under Lord Combermere. Besides the narratives of stirring military events, the book contains graphic sketches of Indian sports. One of these, the boar-hunting, or pig-sticking, as Anglo-Indians call it, has never been described in so spirited a manner. The scenes of the sport, and the songs which enliven the table after a hunt, will be recognised by old campaigners in the East. Although the book is chiefly occupied with exciting and entertaining subjects, some chapters are devoted to instructive and solid information. With the remarks on the study of the oriental languages and literature, on the traditions, tales, and ballads of the people, and other topics, we have been much pleased. The last chapter contains, as a tail-piece, an account of the interview between Lord Auckland and Runjeet Sing in 1838. From a work like this it would be easy to give many interesting quotations, but without quotations the statement of the contents will probably suffice to procure for it the attention of readers who desire a work at once instructive and amusing on Anglo-Indian history and life.

Ocean Lays; or, the Sea, the Ship, and the Sailor.

Selected by the Rev. J. Longmuir, M.A., of the Mariner's Church, Aberdeen. Johnston and Hunter.

The design of this little volume is good, and is well carried out. From the whole range of English poetry Mr. Longmuir has selected pieces bearing on the sea and the sailor's life, giving prominence to poetry of a moral and religious tendency. Poetic beauty is occasionally disregarded in aiming at pious usefulness, but on the whole the selection is of literary interest and value. Among a multitude of less memorable verses there are noble passages from Milton, Cowper, Byron, Campbell, and other classic poets. There are about two hundred pieces in all. Mr. Longmuir has added some poems of his own, the spirit of which is quite in accordance with his professional position, and the high character he bears as a faithful and zealous promoter of the best interests of the seamen in his sphere of labour. The book is one which ought to have a place in ship libraries, and wherever the appropriateness of the poetry to the subjects described is likely to awaken interest or secure attention.

SUMMARY.

A COLLECTION of *Stories from the Classics*, adapted for the young, by Mary and Elizabeth Kirby (Bosworth), presents in a pleasing form some of the well-known tales of ancient mythology and history, such as Ceres and Proserpine, Cupid and Psyche, Achilles and the Siege of Troy, the Death of Hector, Niobe, Jason and the Dragon, the Golden Fleece. These and other beautiful stories of old times are narrated in a style which will prove attractive to young people.

A book containing botanical facts with comments bearing on scriptural truth, by Thomas Gorrie (Blackwood and Sons), is entitled *Illustrations of Scripture from Botanical Science*, with illustrations. Mr. Gorrie's remarks and reflections will assist in the intelligent and profitable perusal of various passages of the sacred writings. *A History of the Great Egg Controversy; or, which was First, the Egg or the Hen?* by Anti-sceptic (Hall, Virtue, and Co.), discusses in a jocular way the development, theory, and other questions recently brought forward by sceptics opposed to received views in religion and science. Wit is not out of place in such controversies, but this writer's style is not of the kind to give effective thrusts to sciolism or folly.

An Essay on Human Happiness, by C. B. Adlerley, M.P., second edition (Blackader and Co.),

is an earnest and solid address, chiefly intended for the consideration of young men; for whom also, by the same publishers, are issued a series of tracts, *Great Truths for Thoughtful Moments*, by able and zealous writers. On various points of female character some good observations and pious counsels will be found in a little treatise, *Modern Blue Belles* (Nisbet and Co.).

The essay which gained the first prize of fifty guineas, in connexion with the Young Men's Christian Association, given by a lady, is published under the title of *Business as it is, and as it Might Be*, by Joseph Lyndall (Walton and Maberly), in which are well shown the chief physical and moral evils connected with the existing system of business, with remedial suggestions. The subject, as treated by Mr. Lyndall, deserves the consideration of parents and employers, of medical men, clergymen, and philanthropists.

The Congregational Year Book for 1854 (Jackson and Walford) contains the proceedings of the Congregational Union for 1853, and general statistics of the Independent denomination. Notices are given of the colleges, public schools, and other educational establishments chiefly supported by the congregational dissenters of England. The recent report on religious worship, in connexion with the census of Great Britain, exhibits the number and importance of the Independent denomination, to whose voluntary exertions the education as well as the religion of the country has been much indebted. The first annual publication is issued of *The Private Patronage of the Church of England* (George Cox), being a guide to all ecclesiastical patronage in the hands of lay patrons, whether individuals, or corporations and trusts. The lists are alphabetical of the names of the patrons, with the livings and their value. An alphabetical index of the benefices facilitates reference. The book is of obvious use to all who are interested in the buying or selling of Church livings or other spiritual offices.

The second part of a very useful and pleasing book for young people is published, *Far off; or, Africa and America Described*, by the author of 'The Peep of Day' (Hatchard). The book is illustrated by numerous engravings, and the descriptions are enlivened by many anecdotes. In the school-book series of the military schools, edited by the Rev. G. R. Gleig, M.A., *A Child's First Book of Geography*, by William Hughes, F.R.G.S. (Longman and Co.), is a successful attempt to adapt elementary instruction in this branch to very young minds. The design of the book is good, being to teach children to understand and reflect on geographical facts, instead of subjecting them to the tedious and repulsive process of mere learning by rote, which is too generally in use.

Reprinted from 'The Leader,' a series of newspaper articles on *The History of the Session 1852-53* (John Chapman), appears as a retrospect of that parliamentary session. Smart and lively the sketches generally are, both of personages and events, but the style, though suitable for the transient perusal of the admirers of 'The Leader,' is defective in qualities desirable in a more permanent work.

On the important subject of *Responsibility in Criminal Lunacy* (Churchill), a treatise by Samuel Knaggs, a surgeon at Huddersfield, contains some facts and arguments worthy of consideration, though the author's literary accomplishments are not equal to his professional knowledge. Mr. Knaggs is a pupil of Dr. Alfred Taylor, the distinguished lecturer and author on medical jurisprudence, under whose training he has imbibed sound principles at least as to the subjects to which he has specially devoted his attention. A very interesting piece of biography is the *Life of the Rev. James Crabb, of Southampton*, by John Rudall, of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister-at-law (Walton and Maberly). Mr. Crabb was chiefly known as 'the gipsy advocate,' his labour having been incessant and successful for the improvement of this neglected race, but he was also unwearied in other works of Christian benevolence and usefulness. Another religious biography

is the *Memoir of the late Rev. Alexander Ross, A.M.* (Hatchard), Rector of Banagher, in the diocese of Derry, with a preface by the venerable John Hayden, M.A., Archdeacon of Derry. Mr. Ross was an evangelical clergyman of the best stamp, an able preacher, and an active and faithful pastor. A selection of his sermons forms the bulk of the volume. Of miscellaneous books of a religious character we may name *Word-Pictures from the Bible* (Longman and Co.), by G. H. Taylor, mathematical master of Huddersfield College, containing lessons on some of the more striking and practical portions of sacred history. *Sabbath Morning Readings on the Book of Ecclesiastes* (J. F. Shaw), forming part of Dr. Cumming's repository lectures on the Old Testament. *Ebenezer's Dream-Garden* (Binns and Goodwin), by J. D. R., conveying moral hints in allegorical style. *The Sunshine of Greystone* (Binns and Goodwin), a story for girls, by E. J. May, author of 'Louis' School Days,' a tale with which young people will be pleased, and which will convey to them profitable counsels. *World-Worship*, by Eleanor Griffiths (Nisbet and Co.), a religious story, the scenes of which are in Wales, and the subject is indicated in the title, the design of the book being to show the evil of worldliness as contrasted with piety.

Of various minor publications and pamphlets we give the titles. *Results of Sanitary Improvement* (C. Knight), illustrated by the operation of the Metropolitan Societies for Improving the Dwellings of the Industrious Classes, the working of the Common Lodging-houses Act, &c., by Dr. Southwood Smith; a very important and satisfactory statement of the good influence of public interference in sanitary matters. *On the Measures to be now taken to secure a good National Education; a Letter to the Committee and Members of the National Club*, by J. C. Colquhoun, Esq. (Hatchard). If rates are to be levied, Parish Education Committees will hardly be satisfied with the financial and mechanical functions to which Mr. Colquhoun would confine them. We are certain also that the Bible is more likely to be insisted on as an instrument of education by those locally interested in the schools, than by mere officials in a central Government office. With local management of schools, there is no risk of religious training being neglected. *Cathedral Commission, and the Collegiate and Cathedral and Parish Church of Manchester* (Beresford and Galt, Manchester), a report of the proceedings under the Cathedral Commission Inquiry, as relating to Manchester, with a Memorial from some citizens, formerly churchwardens of the Collegiate and Parish Church, to the Royal Commissioners, to carry out some suggestions for promoting the spiritual interests of the population. There are abuses connected with the Cathedral and Collegiate Church of Manchester requiring attention, and some of the statements of the memorialists deserve consideration. *A Charge Delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Durham*, at the visitation in July and August, 1853, by Edward Maltby, D.D., F.R.S., (Bohn), is a weighty and earnest address, such as might be expected from the venerable prelate. *Remarks on three Proposals for Reforming the Constitution of the University of Oxford* (Ridgway), by Henry Boothby Barry, M.A., a Fellow of Queen's, offers various criticisms, and makes suggestions on proposed changes in the internal economy of the University, without referring to the reforms in the educational system in which the public are more deeply concerned. *Is Symbolism suited to the Spirit of the Age?* (Bosworth), by William White, who answers the question in the affirmative, and points out the ways in which he thinks symbols may suggest or aid moral and religious feeling. The tendency of symbolism is to foster other feelings than those of rational and sound Christianity, and there is more need of its use being checked than encouraged in the present day. *A Rational Theory of the Varieties of Temperature of the Different Latitudes on the Earth's Surface* (Murray and Stanesby), by Major Parbly, ascribes more effect to the magnetism induced by the earth's rotation than to direct solar influence.

LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

Ainsworth's *Star Chamber*, Vol. 1, post 8vo, cloth, 7s.
 Allen's (A.) *New Greek Delectus*, new edition, 12mo, 4s.
 Amy Grant; or, the *One Motive*, 16mo, cloth, 3s. 6d.
 Armstrong's *English Composition*, parts 1 & 2 in 1 vol., 3s.
 Barnes's (Rev. A.) *Practical Sermons*, 12mo, cloth, 4s. 6d.
 Berkeley's (Hon. G. F.) *Reminiscences of a Huntsman*, 14s.
 Book and its Story, 3rd edition, crown 8vo, cloth, 4s.
 Boole's *Investigation of the Laws of Thought*, 8vo, 14s.
 Bradley's (C.) *Glasbury and Clapham Sermons*, 8vo, 10s. 6d.
 Breathings of Consolation, royal 32mo, cloth, 2s.
 Bridal Gift, royal 32mo, cloth, 2s. 6d.
 Browne's (Rev. L.) *Sussex Sermons*, 12mo, cloth, 5s.
 Bunge's *France before the Revolution*, 2 vols. 12mo, 7s.
 Campbell's *Links in the Chain of Destiny*, 2nd edition, 5s.
 Casson's (H.) *Christianity in Earnest*, new edition, 18mo, 2s.
 Caxtons, (The) by Sir E. B. Lytton, new edition, 7s. 6d.
 Christie's (J. A.) *Spelling*, new edition, 12mo, cloth, 1s. 6d.
 Cloughton's (Rev. T. L.) *Questions on the Catechism*, 2s.
 Cobbin's *Classical English Vocabulary*, 3rd edition, 12mo, 3s.
 Cousin's (M. V.) *Lectures*, 3rd edition, 8vo, cloth, 6s. 6d.
 Cumming and McGhee's *Lectures at Exeter Hall*, 2s. 6d.
 Dale End, by author of "Unseen Hand," 12mo, 2s. 6d.
 De Quincy's (T.) *Autobiographic Sketches*, Vol. 2, 7s. 6d.
 Dill's *Mystery Solved; or, Ireland's Miseries*, 8vo, 2s. 6d.
 Dod's (C. R.) *Parliamentary Companion*, royal 32mo, 4s. 6d.
 Duncan's *Seasons*, new edition, 4 vols. 12mo, cloth, 18s.
 Edwards's (F. W. C.) *Eton Latin Grammar*, 27th ed., 2s. 6d.
 Family Tutor, Vol. 6, post 8vo, cloth, 2s. 6d.
 First History of Greece, fcap. 8vo, cloth, 3s. 6d.
 Flower's (W. B.) *Lucy Ashcroft*, 12mo, cloth, 3s.
 Forbes (A. P.) on the *Canticles* used in Divine Service, 2s.
 Four (The) in One Narrative, fcap. 8vo, cloth, 4s. 6d.
 Fowler's (G.) *Turkey*, 8vo, cloth, 10s. 6d.
 Gardiner's *Twenty Lessons on British Mosses*, 3s. 6d.
 Hutehinson's (Mrs.) *Early Education of Children*, 2s. 6d.
 Imitations of the *Satires of Boileau*, post 8vo, cloth, 3s.
 Jackson (J.) on the *Election of Grace*, 8vo, boards, 2s. 6d.
 Jay's (Rev. W.) *Lectures on Female Scripture Characters*, 6s.
 Kidd's *Own Journal*, Vol. 4, royal 8vo, cloth, 10s. 6d.
 Kitto's (J.) *Daily Bible, Illustrated Evening Series*, Vol. 8, 6s.
 Knag's (L.) *Unsoundness of Mind*, 8vo, cloth, 4s. 6d.
 Langley's (D. B.) *Omey Lectures*, 2nd edition, 12mo, cloth, 3s.
 Laurie's (J.) *Tables of Simple Interest*, 19th edition, 41 1s.
 Lee's (Lady) *Summer Hours*, 12mo, boards, 2s. 6d.
 Luther's *Spiritual Songs* translated by R. Massie, 3s. 6d.
 Macbride's *Lectures on the Diatessaron*, 2 vols., 4th ed., 18s.
 MacFarlane's (J.) *Three Lectures on Popery*, 8vo, 2s. 6d.
 McCulloch's *Commercial Dictionary*, 42 10s., half rus., 42 15s.
 Mannheim's *Study of German Simplified*, 2nd ed., 3s. 6d.
 Markham's *Shooting in the Himalayas*, royal 8vo, 41 1s.
 Morning Thoughts, part 1, fcap. 8vo, cloth, 5s.
 Morton's *Manual of Pharmacy*, 8th edition, fcap. 8vo, 10s.
 Neale's (J. M.) *Unseen World*, 2nd edition, 12mo, 3s.
 New Testament in Greek on the Text of Dr. Scholz, 7s. 6d.
 Notes at Paris, crown 8vo, cloth, 4s.
 Nursery Rhymes, new edition, 18mo, cloth, 1s. 6d.
 Olstead's *Noah and His Times*, crown 8vo, cloth, 7s.
 Original Poems, new edition, Vol. 1, 18mo, cloth, 1s. 6d.
 Parker on *Syphilitic Diseases*, new ed., 2 parts in 1 vol., 10s.
 Paul Clifford, by Lytton, 12mo, boards, 1s. 6d.
 Penny Post, Vol. 3, 12mo, boards, 1s. 6d.
 Proverbs of Madame Palissy, 2nd edition, post 8vo, 7s. 6d.
 Puckle's *Elementary Treatise on Conic Sections*, cr. 8vo, 7s. 6d.
 Pullé (J. H.) and Epps' *Homoeopathic Physician*, 7s. 6d.
 Roby's (J.) *Legendary and Poetical Remains*, p. 8vo, 10s. 6d.
 Smith's (W. B.) *First Italian Course*, 18mo, cloth, 3s. 6d.
 Traveller's Library: *Indications of Instinct*, sewed, 1s.
 Two (The) *Guardians*, royal 18mo, cloth, 6s.
 Tucker's (Henry St. G.) *Memoirs*, Vol. 2, 8vo, cloth, 16s.
 Wild Flowers and their Localities, 4to, cloth, 41 1s.
 Willement's *Catechism of Familiar Things*, new ed., 2s. 6d.

SHAKESPEARE IN FRANCE.

It has long been the fashion in France to speak admiringly and even enthusiastically of Shakespeare, but of those who have talked of him most not one in five thousand ever read him, and of those who had read him not one in a thousand could appreciate his wonderful genius. The truth is that the French, though pretending to be the artistic people *par excellence*, and though they are so to a certain extent, are sadly deficient in poesy; their minds are more mathematically acute than imaginative—they are too sceptical to be charmed with anything that is not real and palpable—too much absorbed with the men and things of this weary world, to allow themselves to be carried away to those regions which are marked down on no map, but which are inhabited by men and women grander, more beautiful, more mysterious, or more terrible far than any we know—men whose deeds are not as our deeds, though they resemble them, whose thoughts breathe and whose language burns—regions, in short, in which there are no academies of sciences, and in which consequently ghosts stalk grimly in the midnight darkness, and fairies trip gaily on the greenward. But though their lack of the poetical faculty has prevented the French from esteeming our Shakespeare, they have always entertained an uneasy half-envious conviction that

he is the greatest of poets, and they have made many attempts to transplant his works on their stage. All these attempts hitherto have failed; but two young French dramatists are making one of an entirely new character, which appears likely to be successful. This consists in taking some of the personages of Shakespeare, and in making them act and talk, not in the Shakspearian, but in the French way. Thus, some time back, one of the said dramatists, a young man named Sèjour, took Richard III. and made him the hero of a melodrama of the true Parisian kind; and within the last week another young man, named Dugué (who is the author of the "Thirst for Gold," which for some time past has been in performance at the Adelphi), has brought out a French *Shylock*. In English eyes it will seem audacious indeed for any one thus to lay hands on the creations of the mightiest dramatic genius that ever lived; and the contrast between the language of Shakespeare and that of the Frenchmen, when the latter do not confine themselves to a simple borrowing or imitation, will appear to the English grotesque in the extreme. We ourselves, seeing the matter in this light, did not hesitate, in previous numbers, to rebuke the two Frenchmen for presumption and folly—and sure we are that no Englishman familiar with the great poet could witness the Parisian *Richard III.* or the Parisian *Shylock* without feeling alternately indignation and pity, because what would pass before his eyes would be so different to what he would have in his mind. But perhaps, after all, these sentiments are not so justifiable as at first glance they appear to be: for it is possible that, in taking Shakespeare's personages the Frenchmen thought they were showing him profound respect, and in dressing them up in the French style that they were simply acting on the Johnsonian maxim, that those "who live to please must please to live." Be this as it may, certain it is that they bring at least some portion of the grandeur of Shakespeare within reach of the understandings of the French people—they make his name familiar to multitudes who never knew it before—and they create amongst the intelligent a desire to fathom the sublimity of his genius. As to the *Shylock* in question, he is exactly the Jew of Shakespeare—full of hatred of the Christians, full of love of his ducats, clamorous for the execution of his bond, and implacably bent on having his pound of flesh from the heart of the hated Antonio. But instead of losing his daughter, Shylock loses his son in the first act, and sees and hears nothing of him for more than twenty years. It is to this son, whose name is Andronic, that he lends his ducats, and it is from him that he demands the pound of flesh: but just as he is about to cut it out the revelation that his victim is his son is made to him. This is a thorough melodramatic "effect," but it gives to the piece the "thrilling interest" which such productions require, in order to be palatable to melodramatic audiences. The second or subsidiary plot of the *Merchant of Venice* is entirely neglected by the French dramatist; but Portia and her suitors are, not very happily, replaced by a courtesan and her admirers, and there are scenes of orgies which are but a poor substitute for the lighter portion of the Shakspearian play. On the whole, however, M. Dugué has made a very curious and very effective melodrama, and one which is not without considerable literary merit, though some parts are feeble, and others display negligence. The manner in which it is acted is perfectly Parisian—that is to say, admirable. Chilly, as the Jew, would, if he could speak English, be warmly applauded here in London: he is the very picture of a *Shylock* of the middle ages, and his every look and gesture and word are those of a man whose heart, from insatiable love of gold and bitter hatred of his Christian persecutors, has become as hard as bronze. Whether our volatile neighbours will venture to dramatise *à la Française*, any of Shakespeare's more aerial creations, such as *Oberon* and *Titania*, which are less intelligible to them, we will not anticipate.

TOPICS OF THE WEEK.

THE gallery of the Society of Painters in Water Colours has been opened this week with an extremely interesting exhibition of Japanese works of art and manufacture. A Dutch merchant, who states that he visits Japan annually with the only European vessel that is permitted to trade with that nation, has brought to England a cargo of Japanese manufactures of rare beauty and workmanship, with the view of tempting the fair ladies of Britain to purchase for their boudoirs and drawing-rooms. The articles, consisting chiefly of cabinets, toilet-tables, work-tables, writing-desks, tea-caddies, glove-boxes, chiffoniers, card-boxes, bonbonniers, &c., are of highly polished black-lacquered wood, inlaid with pearl, after the manner of our papier maché, but in a style entirely new to us. Very effective designs of trees, flowers, birds, &c. are produced by a method of staining the pearl, and an admirable relief is effected by some parts of the inlaying being much more brilliantly pearly than others. Besides these there is a choice collection of porcelain and bronzes, and some very elegant work in straw and bamboo; and the Dutch merchant offers to take orders for manufactures with coats of arms, to be executed by the Japanese. On the whole it is a novel and interesting exhibition, and really worth a visit.

A great exhibition of Horticulture is to be held in June next in a crystal building at Cheltenham, which some of our other provinces of England would do well to imitate. The exhibition is to be divided in three sections;—all kinds of horticultural productions; the arts and sciences connected with horticulture; and designs taken from horticulture. The first section will comprise the choicest examples of flowers, fruits, and vegetables, such as are exhibited in the Horticultural Gardens at Chiswick, and to give encouragement to the humblest cottager as well as to amateurs and gardeners, as many as 180 prizes of different classes will be offered for competition, varying in amount from two shillings to twenty pounds each. The second section of the exhibition, which is to be open for a period of not less than three weeks, is to comprise all sorts of garden implements and specimens of the most improved apparatus, machines, appliances, garden-decorations, models, and plans of laid-out gardens, &c.; and the third will comprise designs for patterns and embroidery, paper hangings, porcelain, manufactures in bronze, &c. The plan of the Cheltenham exhibition appears to have been drawn up with excellent tact and vigour, and is worthy of the highest encouragement.

A meeting was held in the lower room, Exeter Hall, on Thursday evening, to explain the objects of the proposed Cosmos Institute in Leicester-square. Sir John Dorant occupied the chair. Addresses were delivered, in which the various advantages of the Institution were enforced by the speakers. Mr. Digby Seymour, M.P., pointed out the benefits it would confer as a means of popular instruction in all departments of geographical knowledge. Of the advantages of the Cosmos Institute as a place of resort for scientific study, commercial consultation, and general reference on subjects connected with geography, we have spoken in the "Gazette" of last year, when the project was first started. The Cosmos Institute seems fitted to meet some requirements connected with geographical and ethnological pursuits, and if well managed may be useful both as a place for consultation and for popular instruction.

At Exeter Hall, on Tuesday evening, two lectures were delivered before the Young Men's Christian Association, by the Rev. Dr. Vaughan, of Manchester, the biographer of Wycliffe, and by the Rev. Thomas Binney, of London. Dr. Vaughan's lecture, "On Some Passages in the Life of Cicero," was not suited to such an occasion, and being not delivered with much animation, was rather impatiently listened to. The learned lecturer ought to have been informed of the nature of the audience at Exeter Hall, having come apparently prepared to address young men of

academic knowledge and taste instead of young shopmen and clerks expecting an hour's instructive entertainment. Mr. Binney's brief address on "Authorship" was more interesting, although there was time left for only a small portion of what he had prepared, and of what he said he would give to the printer for the series of published lectures of the season.

At Edinburgh, this week, died Mrs. Candlish, formerly Miss Jean Smith, the last of the six "belles of Mauchline," to whom the verses of Burns have given celebrity.

Miss Miller is fine, Miss Markland's divine,
Miss Smith she has wit, and Miss Betty is braw,
There's beauty and fortune to get wi' Miss Morton,
But Armour's the jewel for me o' them a'.

Miss Miller became the wife of the poet's friend, Dr. Mackenzie, Miss Markland was married to a Mr. Finlay, an excise officer at Greenock, Miss Betty Miller became a Mrs. Templeton, and Miss Morton a Mrs. Paterson. The husband of Jean Smith was Mr. Candlish, a medical man, and her son is the Rev. Dr. Candlish, of Edinburgh, whose eloquence and ability confirm the shrewd discrimination of the poet.

A writer in a literary journal of Paris states a fact which it may be useful to make widely known, namely, that bees greatly improve the fructification of fruit trees. He has observed, he says, that orchards in which several hives are kept always produce more fruit than others in which there are none—the situation of, and care shown to, the orchards being the same. In the provinces on the Rhine, he remarks, the fruits are more abundant and finer than in any other part of Germany, and there it is the custom to keep large quantities of bees. Plants, too, which bees visit, thrive better in the neighbourhood of hives. The effect the bees produce is, it appears, to cause the pollen to fall or act sooner or more completely than it would do under the influence of atmospheric causes.

Among the literary novelties of the day is a plan for publishing a new monthly magazine, printed in embossed types, for the blind. A fund is in course of formation to guarantee its cost for the first year, and the list of subscribers is already considerable. Several of the principal institutions for the blind have promised to support it, and the blind themselves are invited to contribute.

At a recent conference of several Boards of Guardians in the neighbourhood of Sheffield, a resolution was unanimously agreed to declaring that the present arrangements for the education of pauper children are very defective, and that it is desirable to establish industrial schools. A committee was appointed to give effect to the resolution, and further proceedings will be taken in the matter at the expiration of three months. The subject is one of much importance, and worthy the attentive consideration of all having the management of pauper children.

At a joint meeting of the members of the College of Physicians and of the Society of Arts, held in the rooms of the latter body on Friday, the Swiney prize of 100*l.*, contained in a silver goblet of the same value, was adjudged to the work entitled, "The Commercial Law of the World," by Mr. Leone Levi.

Professor Henslow continues his lectures at the Ipswich Museum, and has adopted the novel expedient of publishing in the local papers a condensed notice of them. If this example were generally followed by provincial lecturers much useful information would be diffused among the people in a form well adapted for future reference.

A notice in the 'Gazette' has announced that the names of the officers of Sir John Franklin's expedition will be removed from the Navy List after the 31st of March. Amidst the painful feelings suggested by this notice it is satisfactory to have this official declaration that no more exploring expeditions are to be sent on this hopeless search.

A fine painting by Ribera (Spagnoletto), representing "Jacob in prayer while watching Laban's sheep," has been recently presented to the Fitzwilliam Museum at Cambridge, by Mr. J. Fitzgerald of Trinity College.

Mrs. Stowe has been defeated upon the question of the copyright of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' it having been officially decided that a publisher can issue a German translation of that work without infringing upon her rights.

Miss Cushman has been performing this week at the Haymarket Theatre, in *Fazio* and *The Stranger*, in her usual vehement and effective style, and attracting crowded, if not critical, audiences. We shall speak of her more in detail on a future occasion.

Nothing of musical interest is contained in our weekly letters from the Continent. At Paris Mdlle. Cruvelli is exciting a great sensation by her *débuts* in French opera, as the Parisians somewhat vainly call, amongst other things, the great works of Meyerbeer. Her performance in the *Huguenots* is described as immensely superior to anything that has been witnessed at the Grand Opéra for many a long day; it is as admirable a piece of tragic acting as of vocalisation. Madame Tedesco has obtained a *congé* of some length from the same house. At the Opéra Comique the rehearsals of Meyerbeer's *Northern Star* are proceeding. The same *maestro's* *Robert le Diable* has been brought out at Madrid.

The management of the Théâtre des Variétés at Paris has passed into the hands of an English gentleman—Mr. Bowes, the proprietor of the house. For some time past this theatre, unlike the majority of the other houses, has been doing an indifferent business, though it has some clever performers, male and female, and amongst them the famous Arnal, a host in himself.

The provincial theatres in France are far from enjoying the prosperity which a paragraph in our last number showed to be possessed by those of Paris. They are, with scarcely an exception, in a most deplorable state; and within the last few days those of Rouen, Brest, Nîmes, and Toulouse have had to be closed for want of public support.

PROCEEDINGS OF SOCIETIES.

LINNEAN. — Jan. 17th. — Robert Brown, Esq., V.P., in the chair. John Disney, Esq., F.R.S., F.W. Headlands, Esq., B.A., G.H.K. Thwaites, Esq., and the Rev. John G. Wood, M.A., were elected Fellows. Mr. S. Stevens exhibited dried specimens of plants, together with samples of their barks, gums, sections of wood, &c., collected in the neighbourhood of Santarem, on the River Amazon, by Mr. H. W. Bates. The collection, which consists of about thirty species, remarkable either for their medicinal properties or their economic uses, includes the *Murici* (a species of *Byrsomina*), the bark of which is used in tanning; while the wood dyes clothing of a reddish-drab colour; the *Carabeira*, which cuts into fine thin tough boards, used in the manufacture of guitars, &c.; the *Curua*, a stemless palm, the fronds of which are much used in thatching houses; the *Cupá-úba* (*Copaifera*). The heart of this tree yields the medicinal balsam in such abundance that a single tree will sometimes yield as much as five gallons. Sometimes a tree over-charged with the balsam will burst spontaneously with a loud report. According to Mr. Bates, this occasionally happens with the India-rubber tree likewise. The collection includes, moreover, the *Massaranduba*, or cow-tree, the wholesome, cream-like milk of which flows copiously when gashes are made in the bark; the *Ita-ubi*, of which very durable canoes are made, 70, 80, or 100 palms in length, excavated from a single tree; the *Breo-Branco*, which yields in abundance a white fragrant resin, which Mr. Bates employed as a substitute for camphor in his insect-boxes; the *Umiri*, the bark of which is saturated with a very fragrant oil, used as a perfume by the native women. The Secretary read a letter, addressed by Mr. D. Moore, Curator of the Botanic Garden at Glasnevin, to James Yates, Esq., F.L.S., on the occurrence of *Anacharis alismastrum* in Ireland. This remarkable water-weed, in all probability originally introduced from North America, appears to have been first detected in Britain by Dr. George Johnston, who met with it in August, 1842, in the lake of

Dunse Castle, Berwickshire. It was subsequently (in 1847) found by Miss Kirby near Market Harborough, Leicestershire; by Mr. Mitchell, near Nottingham; by Mr. Kirk, in the Watford Locks, Northampton; and it has since been observed in most of the midland counties. In the Cam and Ouse it has increased so rapidly as to have already become an intolerable pest, clogging the beds of those rivers to such an extent as seriously to impede navigation. In 1848, Mr. Babington gave a description of the plant in the 'Annals of Natural History,' and an interesting account, by Mr. Marshall, of its discovery and subsequent progress, was published some months back by Mr. Pamplin, in the form of a pamphlet. The object of Mr. Moore's communication was to state the circumstances connected with the first appearance of this troublesome intruder in Ireland, where it seems to have been observed about the same time as in England. In the early part of 1842, Mr. Moore thinks he first saw the plant growing in a small pond, in the garden of Mr. J. D'Olier, of Bootstown, near Dublin. Mr. D'O. possesses a fine collection of exotic plants, procured from various parts of Europe, as well as from the Continent, and with some of these the *Anacharis* was most probably introduced to his garden. The plant being then new to him, Mr. Moore removed some of it for cultivation in the Botanic Garden, Glasnevin, where it was put in the pond. Little more was thought about it, till Mr. Macaulay brought some from Mr. D'Olier's to the College Garden, about the time it was beginning to attract some notice in England. He was then informed by his foreman that there was plenty of it (some millions of plants) growing in their own pond, which he had no doubt was the produce of the few plants originally brought by him from Bootstown. Mr. Moore believes it to be still confined to the neighbourhood of Glasnevin, not having seen or heard of its being found elsewhere in Ireland. John Miers, Esq., F.R.S., read some observations on the genus *Oxycodrus*, in proof of the correctness of its position among *Bignoniaceae*, which had been impugned by Dr. Berthold Seemann, in his paper on the natural order *Crescentiaceae*, read at the last meeting of the Linnean Society. In that paper Dr. S. objects to the admission of *Oxycodrus* among the *Bignoniaceae*, to which Mr. Miers, in his paper (Linn. Trans., vol. xxi.), had referred it, because of its fruit, consisting of a hard monospermous nut, the seed being suspended from near the summit of the cell, and because of its embryo with large fleshy cotyledons, without wings upon its testa; that in these respects, as well as in its habit, having broom-like branches terminating in a spine, it rather approaches *Myoporaceae*; that the genus *Bontia*, with its hard nut, affords a more complete analogy, agreeing more nearly with it also in the country of its origin. To these arguments Mr. Miers objects that *Oxycodrus* presents far greater discrepancies in relation to *Myoporaceae* than to *Bignoniaceae*; the former family being usually characterized by alternate leaves, flowers having didynamous stamens without any rudiment of a fifth, and a four-celled ovary (with a single suspended ovule in each cell), ripening into a four-celled ligneous indehiscent nut, with a seed in each cell, the ovary being bilocular only in two abnormal genera of the order; while *Bontia* differs from all other genera of this family, in having originally a bilocular ovary, in which, by subsequent growth and inflexion of the placenta, eight pseudo-cells are produced, eventually ripening into a hard indehiscent eight-celled nut, each cell of which contains a single seed with a thick osseous testa. This genus not having been described by any recent author, our knowledge of its structure is imperfect, but enough is recorded to show that it is a very anomalous form, if, indeed, it really belong to *Myoporaceae*, from which it differs in its arborescent mode of growth, as well as in its habitat, being a native of the West Indies, whilst all other members of the family are found in Australia, Asia, or the Islands of the Pacific. In *Oxycodrus*, however, both the branches and rudimentary leaves are distinctly opposite, as in *Bignoniaceae*; the flowers, which are bluish, present a sterile fifth stamen, a

circumstance almost constant in that family, with which it likewise agrees in the widely divaricate anther-cells, in the (bilocular) ovary being seated upon a five-lobed fleshy disk (a character which never occurs in the *Myoporaceae*), and in the number and arrangement of its suspended ovules. Of these there are six in each cell, which, however, all become abortive with the exception of one: the fruit is, therefore, one-locular and one-spermed, presenting an osseous nut, with four deep furrows in its apex, and divisible into four valves; while in *Myoporaceae*, whether four- or two-celled, the intervening space is always solid and perfectly indehiscent. The absence of the alary expansion of the testa, so common in *Bignoniaceae*, having been urged by Dr. Seemann as a reason for excluding *Oxycladus* from that family, Mr. Miers points out that instances of the want of wings to the seed occur in other bignonaceous plants: e. g. in *Spathodea*, in *Argylia*, and in another genus, *Adenocalymma*, found by Mr. Miers himself in Brazil. Finally, the seeds of *Oxycladus* are exalbuminous, as in *Bignoniaceae*; whereas, in those of the *Myoporaceae*, the embryo is always contained within albumen. "After the comparison of these several circumstances," observes Mr. Miers, "I cannot perceive the existence of any marked affinity between *Oxycladus* and any genus of *Myoporaceae*, and therefore see no reason to alter the conclusion at which I formerly arrived, that this genus, although deviating from the usual form of its fruit and seed, bears in every essential respect all the characteristic features of a member of the family of the *Bignoniaceae*."

Dr. Berthold Seemann read extracts from a letter addressed to himself by Dr. E. Vogel, who was directed in February last by Her Majesty's government to join the Expedition in Central Africa, reached Tripoli in the beginning of March, and after some months' delay there, started for the south by the end of June, and passing Barneoud and Sokua, reached Murzuk on the 5th of August last. The letter, which is intended to serve as a commentary on a collection of dried plants dispatched by Dr. Vogel to Mr. R. Brown, is dated Murzuk, and gives some account of the botany of the region between Tripoli and that place. The plants were chiefly collected in Fezzan, but few in North Africa. Dr. Vogel had hoped to make a rich harvest in the great valleys which he traversed, about the 30th deg. N. lat., but, with the exception of a *Ruta* in less exposed situations, found everything dried up; the tall bunches of withered grasses, and fields covered with *Artemisia* and *Thymus*, showed what might have been collected a few months earlier. As he advanced towards the south, the country became still more naked, till at last, about Fezzan, almost every vestige of wild plants had disappeared, save a shrubby *Tamarix* and a spinose leguminous plant, called 'Agul' by the Arabs, used as fodder for the camels; and for days in succession nothing was seen but date-palms, half buried by the drifting sand. In the gardens about Murzuk, the inhabitants cultivate several kinds of grain and culinary vegetables. During winter, barley and wheat are grown; during summer *Gosub* and *Gafali*, plants hitherto so imperfectly known that one traveller describes them as beans, another rice, and a third millet; but we may hope soon to become better acquainted with them, as Dr. Vogel states that he has transmitted specimens of both. Among the few trees growing about Murzuk, the finest is a *Cornus*, called 'Karno' by the Arabs, which attains a height of eighty feet, and a diameter of about three feet. The gum acacia adorns the most stony sides of the valleys of the Wadi Scherzi and Cherbi. Dr. Vogel found some difficulty in obtaining good specimens of the gum, as it is eagerly sought after by the Arabs, who collect it as an article of food. The plant which yields the senna of commerce was met with in Wadi Cherbi, west of Murzuk, where it grew wild under date-palms. It also occurs in enormous masses in Ahir, to the south of Murzuk. *Peganum Harmala*, vernacularly termed 'Harmel,' occupies a prominent place in the *matéria medica* of the Arabs, being celebrated as a preventive

against ophthalmia. It ranges from the northern coast of the continent to Fezzan, as does also the *Cucurbitaceae*, known by the name of *Colocynthis*, the fruits of which are eaten by the ostriches. The Tibus are very fond of the seeds, which they roast, after having previously soaked them for twelve hours in water, to deprive them of their bitter taste. The sun-flower is cultivated in cottage gardens in Fezzan, where it grows to the height of nine feet. The root-bark of a plant resembling the thorn in foliage is used by the Arabs for tanning leather and dyeing red, while the charcoal of the same shrub is employed in the manufacture of gunpowder. Dr. Vogel gives an interesting account of the date-palm. "All Fezzan," he says, "and half Tripolitania, live upon it. Here every door, every post, is made of date-palm wood. The poorer classes live in huts entirely made of date-palm leaves. They furnish the most common fuel. Dates are the food of both man and beast, camels, horses, dogs, all eat dates. Even the kernels are soaked in water, and after having become soft, are given to the cattle." In the form and size of its fruit, the date appears to vary quite as much as our cherries and plums, Dr. Vogel having forwarded figures and descriptions of as many as thirty-eight different varieties. As an instance of the enormous numbers in which this palm occurs, he mentions that when Abdel Geel besieged Sokua (1829), his people cut down in seven days 43,000 trees, and yet there are still 70,000 to be found. Their produce is comparatively small, one hundred full-grown trees yielding about 40 cwt. of dates, worth on the spot 30s. When the crown of leaves has been cut out, a sweet thickish fluid, called 'lagbi,' collects in the cavity, which is very refreshing, but in a few hours begins to ferment, becomes acid, and very intoxicating. In Tripoli there are oranges, lemons, pistachios, pomegranates, figs, mulberries, peaches, apricots, almonds, olives, opuntias, and grapes, in great abundance. Apples and pears are rather plentiful, but of poor flavour. Melons and water-melons arrive at great perfection, the latter sometimes weighing as much as 150 lbs. Potatoes also succeed in Tripoli, the tubers are very large and of fine flavour. Of the above mentioned fruits the following go as far south as Murzuk (lat. 25° 55'), viz., pomegranates, figs, peaches, almonds, and grapes. The vine succeeds well on the shores of the Natron-lakes of Fezzan, the most common being the blue varieties, the white are scarce. A few apple-trees are found in Wadi Schate (about 26° 30' North lat.), but their fruit is unfit for use. Oranges, lemons, and pistachios do not go farther than the Targona mountains. They are confined to a district of about fifty miles from the coast. The olive is not found beyond Benouid, on the southern slope of the Targona mountains (31° 44' North lat.), and at the same place is found the last *Opuntia vulgaris*. The mulberry goes as far south as Sokua (29° 4'); the apricot as far as Sebha (27° 3'). Cotton (both *G. arboreum* and *herbaceum*) is seen here and there in gardens, but the state of the soil does not admit of its being extensively cultivated.

ASIATIC.—Jan. 21st.—Professor Wilson in the chair. J. T. Mackenzie, Esq., was elected into the Society. Dr. R. G. Latham addressed the meeting on the 'Early Occupation of Certain Parts of Europe by Branches of the Turk Family.' The parts of Europe and Asia which the present communication is intended to illustrate, were the Russian governments of Taurida, Cherson, Ekaterinoslaw, and Bessarabia; also the Danubian Principalities and Transylvania, ancient Scythia, with a part of ancient Dacia. The populations under notice are the Comanians, the Petschengues, the Khazars, the Avars, the Huns, and the Skoloti (or Scythæ) of Herodotus. That the first four of these belonged to the Turk stock is admitted generally. That the Huns did so, is partially admitted. That the Skoloti (or Scythæ) did so, is partially admitted also. At present the Turk affinities of these two populations are a postulate. It is not here that the main point of our investigation lies. Nor yet does it lie

in the fact of the preceding populations, one or more, having existed more or less extensively in the parts under notice from the fourth century B.C. to the eighteenth century A.D., when the last of the Comanians of Hungary, who spoke the Comanian language, died. That this Comanian was the Turk of Independent Tartary has been shown by Klaproth, who examined a vocabulary thereof,—a vocabulary interesting from having belonged to Petrarch. The real gist of what was to follow consisted in the assertion of the consecutive character of the history of these populations, and the stationary character of their occupancy; to which must be added the criticism of the current opinions concerning them. These account for the phenomena of the parts in question, as if they were the result of migrations,—of a series of migrations,—of a Comanian migration, a Hun migration, &c. Now the present inquirer committed himself to the opinion that not one of these migrations rested on historical evidence. They were inferences only. That the Skoloti were indigenous to Europe is not believed: it is only asserted that their invasion lies beyond the historical period. The rest are all inferences. Cognate populations within a certain area appeared to different historians at different times under different names. The presumed change was a change of population, implying a fresh migration; the real change was a change of name. With the Avars, the really historical facts took place in countries west of the Volga. Their origin in the remote parts of Asia is an inference—a surmise. In respect to the Huns, the evidence of the only author, Ammianus Marcellinus, who was contemporary with their first appearance in history as a formidable population, is eminently capable of analysis. The historical fact is the ejection of certain Goths from the parts about the Dniester. The Asiatic origin is an inference. Seventy years later the Huns of Attila appear between the Thies and the Danube, and Priscus visits them. This is history. That these were the Huns of the Dniester, advancing westwards, is an inference or surmise,—there is no evidence on the point. The migrations, then, are hypothetical; matters of inference rather than testimony; and the view that adopts them must be criticised as a hypothesis only. Further details on this point would carry us too far; hence the results only of a careful investigation are given. These are as follow:—1. No one of the earlier populations of the list above given can be shown to have entered the ancient *Scythia Europæa* since the beginning of history. 2. No one of the later can be shown to have been eliminated therefrom. All that can be shown is a change of name; all that need be assumed are ordinary internal movements. Hence there was no succession of fresh migrations from Asia, but simply details of the history of *Scythia Europæa*. Is there any further confirmation of this—anything positive? Migrations may have existed, though the evidence of them be wanting. The opposite hypothesis must have some facts in its favour; a few, if not many. Now, 1. The name Hun, in the form Churi, is found in Ptolemy, and in Europe, so that the Huns were a part of European *Scythia* in the second century. 2. Priscus mentions the royal Scythians of the time of Attila, without distinguishing them from the Huns properly so called. 3. Skoloti and Scythæ were collective names; so was Hun. One of the details of the former were the Catiri, of the latter the Cuturguri. 4. One of the details of the Scythæ or Skoloti were the Agathyrsi. In the same locality, i.e., in Transylvania, Priscus found the *Acatiri Hunni*. This identification is Zeuss's. Now, these were in ancient Dacia, and as Dacians they may have fought against Trajan. To have supplied a chief they had no better claim than any other tribe, and no worse. Such a chief would be more or less Turk, i.e., if he were an Agathyrsan or Acatirian. Such a chief probably existed; at any rate, the name of Decebalus is Turk; and the first proper Turk king of history is Dizabulus. No family has so good a claim to Decebalus the Dacian as the Turks. Of the Turk population, the Agathyrsi (*Acatin*, *Khazars*) have the best. Now let us look at the

Huns of Attila, of whom it must be remembered that nothing is absolutely historical, except so far as it can be found in Priscus. The usual authority, Jornandes, in his best parts, rests only on Cassiodorus, a Gothic historian, who had the hate of his nation against the Huns, and one who lived half a century after the death of Attila. The Attila of Priscus is a very different character from the Attila of the later historians. He is no scourge of God,—no murderer of his brother,—no king of an unlimited domain. He has not even reduced the neighbouring Acatziri. He cannot be connected with the Huns who conquered the Goths of the Dnieper, *i. e.*, he has no signs of being a conqueror who has come from the east. He may have been *in situ*, so to say, in a part of the original domain of a long line of ancestors. We find him in a certain locality, and we should take him as we find him. To bring him, *ab extra*, is an inference, an hypothesis. Great stress is laid on this. As far as evidence goes, the ancestors of Attila may have been in the fourth century B.C. where Attila was in the fifth century A.D. Where was this? Not in the part which a conqueror from Asia, who had the pick of all Walachia and Moldavia, would choose. It was rather in the part where the remnants of a reduced population would retreat to. It was in the lowlands between the Thiesse and Danube. More than this, it was in the parts between Pannonia and Dacia, just the parts that belonged to neither provinces,—the parts that never were Roman. It is submitted, then, that certain populations of the Scythæ, or Skoloti, lay far enough west to have lain within the limits of ancient Dacia, and that they were important enough to have supplied a chief in the wars against Trajan; that such independence as was preserved between the Danube and the *Limex Romanus* was Scythian; that in the ejection of the Goths from the Dniester, the Goths (and not the Huns) were the intrusive population; that the acts of Attila were those of a restorer rather than a destroyer. He was the analogue of Pelagius in Spain, rather than of Zenghiz Khan or Tamerlane. History tells us little; two-thirds of what passes as such is inference. Without saying that this inference will give us exactly such a phenomenon as the reconstruction of the empire of a Decebalus by an Attila (a patriot king instead of a barbarian conqueror), it gives us something far likelier than the opposite extreme, which is the exaggerated picture of a great and gratuitous blood-shedder, with the scourge of God in his hands, and a whole vassalage of kings at his feet.

GEOGRAPHICAL.—Jan. 9th.—Sir Charles Fellowes, Vice-President, in the chair. Mr. E. Osborne Smith and Mr. W. Foster White were appointed auditors for the year. Mr. William Jennings, Dr. Travers Cox, Mr. John Dower, Dr. Thomson, Mr. Henry Norman, and Mr. Ernest Haug were elected fellows. The papers read were:—1. 'Observations on North Africa,' by Dr. Vogel, communicated by the Foreign-office. 2. 'Latest accounts of the Mission to Central Africa,' communicated by Mr. A. Petermann, F.R.G.S. 3. 'Geographical Explorations in Southern Africa,' by Mr. T. Baines, and others. A letter from Lieutenant-General Cathcart, Governor of the Cape Colony, recommending an expedition to the interior of South Africa, under Mr. Thomas Baines, was next read. The plan suggested by Mr. Baines was to pass from Graham's Town, through the sovereignty, and skirting the western branches of the Limpopo, to cross the desert at its narrowest part in the direction of the great lake, thence to ascend one of the streams flowing from the Labale Mountains, and keeping on the highest ground, to push during successive seasons as far north as possible. This was followed by a paper by Mr. Baines, on the course of the rivers in the northern part of the Orange River sovereignty, and that of the Limpopo, illustrated by a map constructed by Mr. Arrowsmith, from his sketches, and from information derived respecting the northern parts of the Limpopo, from Mr. Joseph M'Cabe; and with

regard to the country between that river and Delagoa Bay, from Mr. Coqui. According to the statement made to Mr. Baines by the latter gentleman, it would appear that the long-received opinion, that the Limpopo flows into Delagoa Bay, has been adopted rather hastily, Mr. Coqui having travelled from Origstadt, one of the towns of the Dutch emigrants, to Delagoa Bay, crossing as he believes all the branches of the Manice, and being still farther confirmed in his opinion by a map shown him by the Portuguese Governor, in which all the sources of that river are made to rise in the Drakensberg. About forty miles of the Manice, into which a large river possibly may flow, remain still unaccounted for; but the general opinion among the emigrant farmers seems to be, that the Limpopo, after passing through the Drakensberg to the north of Origstadt, flows into the sea at Inhambane. 4. Departure of Dr. E. G. Irving, R.N., F.R.G.S., on his mission to Western Africa:—"As you desired, I send you a few lines with regard to my intended mission. Nine years' service on the coast of Africa, six of which were on the west coast (whilst in the Styx taking twenty-seven prizes), seem to fit me for my task. In December, 1852, I was ordered on service to Abbeocuta, with Commander Foote, then senior officer. There I was much struck with the superior appearance of the people, their great capabilities, the productiveness of the soil, the variety of objects which might lead to an extensive and lucrative commerce with England—more especially that of cotton, which is indigenous, and is carefully cultivated by the Yarbubas; these comprise a population of nearly 3,000,000 souls, clothed entirely in cloths manufactured by themselves. On my return to England I represented these things to the Church Missionary Society, and many of the samples of African produce I brought home excited great attention amongst manufacturers and others. The cotton proved to be of the very quality required for the purpose of manufacture. Among them were also an entirely new kind of silk, respecting which several eminent merchants in London are very anxious for further information. The account of our mission to Abbeocuta was given in the June, August, October, and November numbers of the 'Church Missionary Intelligencer.' At length I volunteered to go out and examine the country between the Niger, Bight of Benin, and Lander's route between Badagry and Boussa, a country, excepting at one or two points where our missionaries have been the pioneers, never yet visited by white men. My offer was accepted, and I start as agent in Yarbuba for the Church Missionary Society, with the sanction of Sir James Graham and approval of Lord Clarendon, from both of whom letters of introduction have been received to the respective authorities on the coast. The necessary instruments for making observations have been most liberally furnished to me by the Royal Geographical Society, Church Mission Society, and the Hydrographic Office. I thus go out as agent of the Church Missionary Society, with the sanction and approval of the Government, Foreign Office, Admiralty, Royal Geographical Society, and with the hearty good wishes of the Manchester manufacturers, who have offered to make purchase of cotton at remunerative prices to the natives to a large amount. An opportunity will be afforded me of extending our knowledge of botany, natural history, and of fixing the sites of hitherto unvisited places in a country the geographical features of which are but little known." 5. From Mr. Gregor Laird, Esq., stating that the screw steamer, to ascend the Niger and Chadda, will be shortly ready:—"The vessel intended for the exploration of the Chadda will be ready in March, and is intended to leave the mouth of the main branch of the Niger on the 1st July. Accompanying her will be three metallic sectional boats, fifty feet long and eight feet beam each, manned by natives, to explore the upper part of the river, and secure a safe return to Fernando Po, if any serious accident occurs to the steamer. I propose that the officers appointed by the Admiralty (three in number) shall

proceed in the contract mail packet on the 24th May, and join the river steamer at Fernando Po. The number of Europeans in the steamer will not exceed ten or twelve (including the three Admiralty passengers), and those all men of education and resources. The steamer's crew, and the boats' crew, will be negroes, the total number employed from eighty to ninety men. The steamer will have a speed of ten knots, be propelled by the screw, and leave the coast with twenty-five or thirty days' coal (twelve hours per day), which I trust will be sufficient to carry her to the head of the navigable waters of the Chadda, without the delay of cutting wood. From the 1st of July I calculate upon seventy-five days' rising waters in the rivers, and it will depend upon the orders of the Admiralty whether the vessel remains beyond that time. I believe you are aware I am only the contractor, finding the steamer and paying the charges, and that the Admiralty decide upon the course to be followed, and their orders I am bound to carry out."

ASTRONOMICAL.—Dec. 9th.—G. B. Airy, Esq., in the chair. Lieut. E. D. Ashe, R.N., was balloted for and duly elected a Fellow of the Society. 1. 'Note on Comet III. 1853,' by M. C. Rümker. The phenomenon attending the setting of the comet of Klinkerfues, witnessed September 2, 1853, at Liverpool, Durham, Markree, in America, throughout Denmark, Sweden, and several parts of Germany, brings to recollection the appearance of the great comet of 1843. The tail of that comet first attracted the attention of European observers, some of whom never saw the nucleus; but the tail remained for several evenings visible; and on or about the 25th of March, after its setting in the south-west, a luminous appearance was observed above the western horizon, and called a zodiacal light, the name of *Aurora occidentalis* being deemed objectionable. On the 2nd of September, 1853, at nine hours fifteen minutes, or two hours after the setting of the comet of Klinkerfues, I observed at Hamburg, a little to the north of west, an appearance resembling that of the tail of a comet, slightly curved, with the concave side to the north.* But as the phenomenon, which appeared at first immovable, was a quarter of an hour afterwards seen to the south of Arcturus, when clouds prevented further observations, and as several observers have attributed it to the effects of the comet, I propose to investigate how far this supposition can be justified by theory and reconciled with the coincidence of the alleged tail with the star Arcturus. If the tail of the comet had no curvature, it should, as viewed from the earth, coincide with a great circle passing through the sun and comet; but the angle formed by this great circle with an arc joining the comet with Arcturus would be the geocentric effect of a curvature. Now it may be remarked, that the projection of this great circle upon the plane of the meridian must be represented by a straight line when its intersection with the equator crosses the horizon, but will, in the present case, where the right ascension of the sun is less, but its declination greater, than that of the comet, be curved previously to that time with its convex side to the north, and subsequently to the north pole. The calculation of the effect of curvature may then be based upon the geocentric place of the comet, derived from observation, by computing the angle at the comet in a triangle, in which the sun's and comet's polar distance and the intercepted angle, or the difference of their right ascensions, are given; and by subtracting from its supplement that angle at the comet contained between the arcs joining the comet with the pole and with Arcturus, the remainder is the geocentric effect of curvature, and will be found 28° 12', assuming the right ascension of the comet to have been eleven hours twenty-two minutes twenty-nine seconds, and its declination = + 6° 54'. It is found that the angular distance

* Dr. Ritter observed precisely the same phenomenon at Göttingen, where M. Klinkerfues had seen some days before the actual tail of the comet, curved in the same direction.

of the comet from the sun is $8^{\circ} 51'$, and from the star $42^{\circ} 23'$. Although instances of greater curvatures are known, it may be worth while to ascertain the amount of the actual curvature, or the angle at the sun between two lines from the sun to the comet, and from the sun to that point in the comet's tail which, viewed from the earth, covered Arcturus. But, as physical causes can only be assigned for curvatures taking place in the plane of the comet's orbit, we shall imagine two great circles meeting in the geocentric place of the sun, and in the heliocentric place of the earth, the planes of which intersect each other in the produced radius vector of the earth. In the circumference of the first of these two great circles, the plane of which passes through the real comet, are its heliocentric and geocentric places, at the point where two lines from the sun and from the earth through the comet terminate. This circle coincides with the above, passing through the sun and comet, made use of in our former calculation. In the circumference of the plane of the second great circle passing through Arcturus, this star is at the same time the geocentric place of that point in the axis of the comet's tail, which appeared to us to cover it, whilst the intersection of this second great circle with the comet's orbit is the heliocentric place of this same point, and the arc of the comet's orbit intercepted between the first and second great circle is the actual curvature of the tail. For the calculation we have, in addition to the above-stated observed place of the comet, the choice of more arguments than are required, which may serve to check the calculations. For my calculation only two parts of the elements are introduced—viz., the comet's radius vector, which, so near the perihelion as well as the inclination, may be sufficiently relied on. I omit the calculation, which may be arranged differently. The geocentric effect of the curvature as well as the comet's angular distance from the sun and from Arcturus, resulting from this calculation, agree perfectly with what was found by the former proceeding. The actual curvature, or the angle at the sun between the comet and the point in question, I find = $22^{\circ} 5'$, and the absolute distance of this point from the earth I find 0.64947, which is all within the limits of probability, so that we need not hesitate to ascribe the beam of light seen first in the west and then in the south-west to the comet. But, in order to establish a connexion between the first apparition and ensuing phenomenon (zodiacal light or *aurora borealis*), we must follow the comet in the different positions of the first great circle with respect to the horizon of Hamburg, during the rotation of the earth; whence it becomes evident, that the point of its intersection with the equator sets in the true west, and that the amplitude of that point of the beam of light which crossed the horizon at nine hours and a quarter was $2^{\circ} 58'$ north of west. As long as the sun was between the comet and the lowest point of the great circle, elongated 90° from its intersection with the horizon, the beam was directed upwards; but after the comet's passing this point, the beam was directed downwards, and the phenomenon must disappear. It further follows that, under the above-mentioned circumstance of the sun's north polar distance being the lesser, the amplitude of the setting point of the beam must, until its disappearance below the horizon, have had a southerly motion, whilst the comet itself below the horizon was proceeding to the north. All this agrees perfectly with the observations in Hamburg and all other places, where, in general, the first phenomenon was seen more towards the south, where it was perceived later, setting aside anomalies arising from difference of latitude. At nine hours fifteen minutes the sun's depression below the horizon of Hamburg was $19^{\circ} 34'$; azimuth N. $43^{\circ} 46'$ W.; the comet's, $16^{\circ} 25'$; azimuth N. $52^{\circ} 25'$ W. At eleven o'clock the depression of the comet was $26^{\circ} 17'$, and its azimuth N. $26^{\circ} 38'$ W., being then 1° above the sun. In more northerly latitudes the comet approached nearer the horizon, so that the apparition of its more expanded fan-like tail could, with the aid of increased darkness, produce a phenomenon similar to an *aurora borealis*. I beg leave

to mention that Mr. Hartnup, as I understand, has called it an *aurora borealis* of unusual appearance. Towards two o'clock in the morning of September 29th an *aurora borealis* was seen at Durham. Bruhn's comet was then quite near the horizon, 36° perpendicular above the sun. I have further to impress that the comet of Klinkerfues was in its perihelion, and the comet of Bruhn and the great comet of 1843 near it. There is, however, one circumstance which is more difficult to reconcile with this hypothesis, that is its proper motion, differing from that of the fixed stars, and greater than could arise from its motion in its orbit. But, considering that the tail of a comet is a fluid which cannot be classed under what is generally termed heavenly bodies, its motion cannot be put to the mathematical test before its nature is better known. It is, moreover, well known that motion has been observed in the tails of several comets, and that it consists of rays which project in short intervals of time, considerably more or less, like those of an *aurora borealis*. As these points appertain to physical astronomy, I must leave them to those who are better versed in that part of the science, and confine myself to the following remarks. The distance of the comet from the earth was too great to allow a contact of its expanded tail with the atmosphere of the earth. But, notwithstanding, the phenomenon might have been an atmospheric one caused by the tail of the comet, as there are perihelia round the sun and halos round the moon, rainbows, &c. &c., which expand and contract, and are generated in the atmosphere. And although there have been observed more *aurora borealis* than comets, there certainly also exist more comets than those that have been discovered; and it has already been remarked by others, that our earth may often have been enveloped in the tail of a comet without our having been aware of it.

SYRO-EGYPTIAN.—Jan. 10th.—Thomas Wright, Esq., M.A., F.S.A., in the chair. 1. 'A Biographical Sketch of the late Dr. G. F. Grotefend, of Hanover,' by Dr. W. Camps. Dr. George Frederick Grotefend, the distinguished philologist and antiquary, was born at Münden, June 9th, 1775. He received his earliest education in the school of his native town, and in that of Ilfeld. In 1795 he entered the University of Göttingen, where he was brought into intimate relations with Heyne, Tyschen, Heeren, and others. In 1797 he became one of the teachers at the Gymnasium. In 1799 he published his work 'Pasiographia, une Scriptura Universalis.' In 1803 he became pro-rector, and in 1806, co-rector of the Gymnasium. In 1812 he was promoted to the office of Professor of Classical Literature in the Lyceum of Frankfort-on-the-Maine. In 1821 he was appointed Director of the Lyceum at Hanover, which office he held until 1849. Besides many learned and profound essays or treatises published in journals devoted to literature, the 'Hanoversche Zeitung,' which contains a long obituary of the Professor, enumerates a long catalogue of his published works. It was, however, as an oriental scholar that Dr. Grotefend was so renowned, and chiefly on account of the happy results that followed his efforts, commenced in 1802, at deciphering the Persepolitan cuneiform inscriptions, and which have been further extended by other investigators in that department of literary research, as Lassen, Bournouf, Botta, Hincks, Rawlinson, Layard, and others. Dr. Grotefend died at Hanover, Dec. 15, 1853, in the 78th year of his age. The deceased was no less amiable and respected as a man than he was distinguished as a scholar. In stature he is said to have been very small, almost diminutive, yet endowed with great natural vigour and healthiness of constitution, which he turned to good account by persevering efforts in study, as a consequence of which he took the highest rank amongst his class of scholars. By his death society in general and literature in particular have sustained a heavy loss. He was a member, either ordinary, corresponding, or honorary, of most of the literary societies of Germany, France, or England, belonging

to no less than five of this metropolis, the Royal Asiatic, the Numismatic, the Syro-Egyptian, the Anglo-Biblical, and the Chronological Institute of London, the Royal Irish Academy of Dublin, the Royal Society of Northern Antiquaries of Copenhagen, and the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres de Paris. In 1847, His Majesty the King of Prussia bestowed upon him the honourable distinction of the third class of the order of the Red Eagle of Prussia, and subsequently His Majesty the King of Hanover conferred upon him the rank of member of the fourth class of the Royal Guelphic order of Hanover. 2. 'Remarks on Certain Notices of Early Egyptian Chemistry lately published,' by Dr. W. Camps. Dr. Camps commenced by stating that the notices in question were contained in the 'Philosophical Magazine,' and referred to some discussion on the subject of early Egyptian chemistry, which appeared in that journal, between Mr. Herapath of Bristol, and Mr. Denham Smith of London. It was upon the wrappings or envelopes of a mummy, unrolled at Bristol, that Mr. Herapath had experimented, and arrived at the conclusions which had been communicated to that journal. Dr. Camps then proceeded to detail the observations made on this subject, giving the particulars of the discussions as they appeared, concluding his communications to the Society by remarking that the point at issue appeared to be involved in the following question: Were the ancient Egyptians acquainted with nitric acid and its salts of silver, or were they not? He thought that the evidence in favour of the affirmative, namely, that they were acquainted with this acid, or its salt of silver, appeared irresistible from the experiments conducted by Mr. Thornton Herapath; and if this were admitted, one must then allow the Egyptians to have had a more intimate acquaintance with chemistry and chemical preparations than is generally assigned even to these clever, intelligent, and ancient people. 3. Mr. Sharpe exhibited a drawing of a sculptured Slab from Khursabad, published by M. Botta and Mr. Bonomi. It represents a fleet of Phœnician timber-ships carrying planks of wood from a city on the coast. The timber is brought down to the coast from a hill. The Assyrian Winged Bull accompanies the ships, and the fish-god of the Philistines is on one side. Mr. Sharpe's conjecture was that these were ships of Tarsus in the service of Sennacherib, carrying the timber of Mount Lebanon from the city of Tyre to be used by the Assyrian army at the siege of Petusium, where Sennacherib's army was destroyed. The Second Book of Kings does not mention the siege of Petusium as the spot where that celebrated event took place—that information is added by Herodotus. Again, neither the Book of Kings nor Herodotus tell us that a fleet was there in attendance on Sennacherib's army; but the circumstances of the case make it probable; and in the 48th Psalm, where thanks are returned for the city of Jerusalem not being besieged by the Assyrians, we are also told that the Lord scattered the ships of Tarsus by an east wind. The three writings—namely, the Second Book of Kings, chapters viii. and xix., Herodotus, and Psalm lviii., make it probable that Sennacherib had at that time a fleet of Phœnician vessels on the Mediterranean Sea, and this sculpture seems to be a representation of that fleet.

ANTIQUARIES.—Jan. 19th.—Viscount Mahon, President, in the chair. Notice was given from the chair that the addition recommended by the Council to be made to the Secretary's salary would be balloted for on the 26th January. Lord Talbot de Malahide was proposed by the noble President for election; and, as a peer, the ballot was at once taken, and his lordship declared a Fellow. The following gentlemen were balloted for and elected Fellows—Philip J. Darell, Esq.; Kenneth R. H. Mackenzie, Esq.; Coryndon Luxmore, Esq.; and Henry Glasford Potter, Esq.; and Samuel Birch, Esq., of the British Museum, was re-elected a Fellow. Sir Henry Ellis, Director, exhibited casts of two seals, one of Richard de Humet, Constable

of Normandy (temp. Stephen), the other of his son William, the old seal of his father being adapted by the alteration of the Christian name. Sir Henry noticed a similar instance of the adaptation of the seal of Richard the Second by the usurper Henry the Fourth, as mentioned by Rymer. Mr. Akerman communicated some remarks on the ancient cemetery of Kingsholm, Gloucester, which he had visited in the past summer. A ground-plan of the spot, kindly prepared by Mr. Jacques of that city, was exhibited, showing that this burial-ground occupied the greater portion of the district. The interments were for the most part of the Roman period, and the different rites of inhumation and cremation had been observed. In a place, however, called the Gravel-pits, traces of Anglo-Saxon interments had been discovered. The excavations carried on during the past year had not only disclosed sepulchral remains, but numerous coins had been discovered, ranging from the times of the early Emperors down to the abandonment of Britain by the Romans. Among these were several pieces of the middle brass size, which were very clearly attempts to imitate the very common brass coins of the Emperor Claudius. They resembled in fabric the colonial coins of Spain, and he thought numismatists would agree with him that they were in all probability the rude money of the colony established at Gloucester on the subjugation of the Britons by Claudius. These coins had often been found in various parts of Gloucestershire, and some specimens were preserved in the collection of the British Museum. With regard to the name of Kingsholm, this district was so designated in early records, but in those of subsequent date, by the elision of the consonant *l*, it had been altered to *Kingshorne*, a circumstance which he believed had paved the way for a very grave error, and given rise to the story, repeated by several writers, that an ancient Saxon regal dwelling once stood on the site, an assertion which certainly required confirmation, since the ground was literally crammed with the mortal remains of an earlier population. Why this spot was called the Kingsholm might furnish grounds for further investigation. He could himself only offer the suggestion that as the name 'Holme' signified a river island, it was probably occupied by the forces of one of the rival kings at the period of the contemplated single combat between Canute and Edmund Ironside. This conjecture will not appear so improbable when it is remembered that to passages of this kind the Danes gave the name of *Holm-gang*. Mr. Foss then read remarks 'On the Relationship between Richard Fitz-James, Bishop of London, and Lord Chief-Justice Sir John Fitz-James.' Lord Campbell, in his life of the Chief-Justice, does not appear to have been aware that any relationship existed between those personages, and has consequently ascribed obscurity of birth to the Judge, but Mr. Foss in these observations proves these personages to have been members of the same family.

BRITISH ARCHAEOLOGICAL.—Jan. 11th.—Ralph Bernal, Esq., M.A., President. Mr. Ellis exhibited a Dutch medal of the date of 1626, representing a fleet of ships, and having around the inscription, *Confortamini Deo Confidentes*, on the reverse, *Imminet undique usque quo Hostes*. Also a silver Madonna medal of fine execution. Mr. Ellis likewise exhibited a very curious and interesting knife, which had been found thirty feet below the level of the Thames, and was brought up along with mud by the pump when employed in making the foundation for the present Billingsgate market. It is as early as the fourteenth century, the handle is composed of brass ornamented with figures, and portions of wood are inlaid. It was directed to be drawn and engraved. Mr. H. Syer Cuming exhibited a curious knife of the time of Edward VI., distinguished by Piquet work of brass in the wooden handle. It was discovered in Farringdon street in 1845, when the new road to Islington was being constructed. The wooden handle is riveted on to the iron tang, and decorated with little disks and trefils arranged alternately down the sides. The iron blade is of a narrow pointed form, and bears

the impress of a pastoral staff, intended either as a religious device or else the maker's stamp. But the most important part of this specimen is its disk-shaped pommel of brass, on each face of which are engraved the numerals 52, in characters of the 16th century, and doubtless standing for 1552, the omission of the preceding figures being not at all uncommon at this period. Mr. Brent exhibited a grant of arms to Thomas Honeywood, of Sende in Newington juxta Hythe, in the county of Kent, dated 18th Elizabeth (1576), and signed by Robert Cooke, Clarencieux. Mr. Planché exhibited a helmet the property of Mr. Pratt, which belonged to a very early period, and of a description previously unknown either to Mr. Planché or Mr. Bernal. It was obtained from Kent, and there were some circumstances connected with it which made it not improbably the helmet of King Stephen. It will be drawn and illustrated by Mr. Planché. Mr. Milward, of Thurgarton Priory, sent for exhibition a rare Lincoln halfpenny. Mr. Pettigrew read a letter he had received from Dr. Grayling, accompanied by a drawing of a Roman vase and patera lately obtained in Kent. Further excavations will be conducted in the spring, and the results forwarded to the Association. Mr. O'Connor read a very elaborate paper 'On Painted Glass,' exhibited specimens belonging to various periods, and illustrated his paper particularly by the description of a remarkable window in Lincoln cathedral. This window contained sixteen circular portions, in each of which angels were drawn, but differing in their character in every instance. The paper gave rise to an animated discussion, and it will be printed with the necessary illustrations.

MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

- Monday.**—Institute of Actuaries, 7 p.m.—(Discussion on Decimal Coinage.)
- Tuesday.**—Civil Engineers, 8 p.m.—(On Macadamised Roads for the Streets of Towns, by Mr. J. Pigott Smith, Assoc. Inst. C.E.)
- Royal Institution, 3 p.m.—(Professor Tyndall on Heat.)
- Wednesday.**—Society of Arts, 8 p.m.—(Discussion on Mr. T. Webster's paper on Laws relating to Property in Designs and Inventions, and the effect of such laws on the Arts and Manufactures.)
- Geological, 8 p.m.
- Thursday.**—Royal, 8½ p.m.
- Antiquaries, 8 p.m.
- Photographic, 3 p.m.—(Anniversary.)
- Royal Institution, 3 p.m.—(Professor Wharton Jones on Animal Physiology.)
- Friday.**—Botanical, 8 p.m.
- Royal Institution, 8½ p.m.—(W. R. Grove, Esq., Q.C., on the Transmission of Electricity by Flame and Gases.)
- Saturday.**—Asiatic, 2 p.m.
- Medical, 8 p.m.
- Royal Institution, 3 p.m.—(Professor Miller on the Chemistry of the Non-Metallic Elements.)

VARIETIES.

The Coal Trade.—To such an extent has our coal industry been developed, that at the present time not less than 37,000,000 tons are annually raised, the value of which at the pit's mouth is little less than 10,000,000l.—at the places of consumption, including expenses of transport and other charges, probably not less than 20,000,000l. The capital employed in the trade exceeds 10,000,000l. About 400 iron furnaces of Great Britain consume annually 10,000,000 tons of coals, and 7,000,000 tons of ironstone, in order to produce 2,500,000 tons of pig-iron, of the value of upwards of 8,000,000l. For the supply of the metropolis alone 3,600,000 tons of coal are required for manufacturing and domestic purposes; our coasting vessels conveyed, in 1850, upwards of 9,360,000 tons to various ports in the United Kingdom, and 3,350,000 tons were exported to foreign countries and the British possessions. Add to this that about 120,000 persons are constantly employed in extracting the coal from the mines, and that in some of the northern counties there are more persons at work under the ground than upon its surface—and some approximate idea will be formed of the importance and extent of this branch of our industry. The extent of the coal areas in the British Islands

is 12,000 square miles, annual produce, 37,000,000 tons; of Belgium, 250 miles, annual produce, 5,600,000 tons; of France, 2,000 miles, annual produce, 4,150,000 tons; of the United States, 113,000 miles, annual produce, 4,000,000 tons; of Prussia, 2,200 miles, annual produce, 3,500,000 tons; of Spain, 4,000 miles, annual produce, 550,000 tons; of British North America, 18,000 miles, annual produce not known. Taking the British Islands alone, and dividing them into districts, we find the supposed workable area as follows in acres—Northumberland and Durham, 500,000; Cumberland, Westmoreland, and West Riding, 99,500; Lancashire, Flintshire, and North Staffordshire, 550,000; Shropshire and Worcestershire, 79,950; South Staffordshire, 65,000; Warwickshire and Leicestershire, 80,000; Somersetshire and Gloucestershire, 167,500; South Wales, 600,000; Scottish coal fields, 1,045,000; Irish coal fields:—Ulster, 500,000; Connaught, 200,000; Leinster, 150,000; Munster, 1,000,000. Our exports, which in 1840 amounted to 1,600,000 tons, valued at 576,000l. had increased in 1850 to 3,531,000 tons, of the value of 1,284,000l. In 1841 our exports to France were 451,300 tons; to Holland, 173,378 tons; to Prussia, 116,296 tons; and to Russia, 77,152 tons. In 1850 they were, to France, 612,545 tons; to Holland, 159,953 tons; to Prussia, 186,528 tons; and to Russia, 235,193 tons.—*Durham Advertiser*.

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